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ABSTRACT

As part of a larger study of instructional issues for English as a second language (ESL), current literature is reviewed and summarized in four major areas affecting the teaching and learning of ESL in grades K-12: ESL instructional approaches, patterns of curriculum organization, instructional materials, and language learning theories. In the first section, thirteen approaches are reviewed: the audiolingual method, the Silent Way, the counseling-learning or community language learning approach, suggestopedia, the language experience approach, the new concurrent approach, total physical response, the notional-functional syllabus, communicative approaches, strategic interaction, the natural approach, cognitive approaches, and content-based approaches. The second section examines three program-level organizational strategies (ESL within bilingual programs, ESL-only programs, and ESL immersion) and classroom-level organization. The section on instructional materials looks at elementary level, secondary level, and teacher-oriented materials. The language learning theories reviewed include the biological/neurological theory, cognitive theories, and socio-affective theories. References are provided for each subsection in the report. (MSE)

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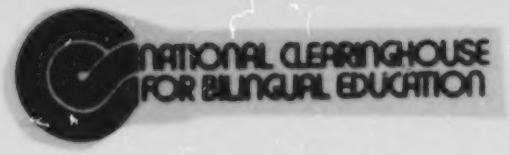

A SUMMARY OF CURRENT LITERATURE ON ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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A SUMMARY OF CURRENT LITERATURE ON ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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I. INTRODUCTION

Overview

This summary of literature on English as a second language (ESL) was prepared as part of the "Review, Summary, and Synthesis of Literature on English as a Second Language," under Contract Number 300-84-0166 for the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Department of Education.

The major tasks to be accomplished in this study are the following:

- Conduct a literature search on ESL instructional approaches, organizational patterns, materials, and language learning theories.
- Review and summarize literature identified through literature search.
- Prepare a narrative synthesis addressing educational policy issues.

The products resulting from this study will be a report containing an annotated bibliography of literature on ESL, a report summarizing the literature reviewed, and a report synthesizing the information summarized and addressing educational policy issues for different age and grade levels of students receiving ESL instruction in U.S. public schools.

The annotated bibliography on ESL was developed in the form of a database containing not only bibliographic information and abstracts for each entry, but also additional information such as instructional approach and language learning theory discussed, age and proficiency levels indicated, and

student and teacher characteristics addressed. The level of detail provided by the bibliographic database of current literature on English as a second language has facilitated the organization of this review and summary of the literature, and will also inform the synthesis report addressing policy issues.

Policy issues to be discussed in the final report are the following:

a. instructional approaches used in ESL settings;

b. educational benefits of instructional approaches identified in (a);

c. language learning theories supporting instructional approaches identified in (a);

d. organizational patterns followed in ESL instruction;

e. circumstances under which organizational patterns are used;

f. interaction of classroom composition and organizational patterns and its effect on second language learning within ESL setting;

g. influence of cognitive, social, and affective learning styles on the acquisition of English in ESL settings;

h. circumstances under which native language and culture are used in conjunction with ESL instruction;

i. effects of student characteristics on second language learning in ESL settings; and

j. appropriateness and compatibility of instructional materials for each of the various instructional approaches used in ESL settings.

Purpose

The purpose of this report is to review and summarize current literature in the following four major areas affecting the teaching and learning of ESL in grades K-12:

- o ESL Instructional Approaches
- o ESL Organizational Patterns
- o ESL Instructional Materials
- o Language Learning Theories Supporting Instructional Approaches

Organization

This report is in four main chapters: ESL Instructional Approaches, ESL Organizational Patterns, ESL Instructional Materials, and Language Learning Theories Supporting Instructional Approaches. The documents reviewed in each of these areas are identified as to information type, that is, whether they represent information from theoretical research, from applied or experimental studies, from practice, or from program evaluation. Each chapter begins with an overview of its contents and ends with a concluding statement.

In reviewing the literature on the four areas related to current ESL practice, a particular focus was made on the area of Instructional Approaches, which are seen as the key component in an ESL program. In addition to descriptions of the various instructional approaches in current use, information is also provided on their theoretical bases and any experimental evidence on their effectiveness. The student characteristics addressed by each approach are described, and any instructional materials that exemplify the approach are noted.

The second area emphasized in this summary is that of language learning theories which underlie the various instructional approaches. Descriptions of current language learning theories and, where possible, of studies

supporting them are provided. Student characteristics such as developmental stages, sociolinguistic factors, cognitive styles, and environmental factors have been surveyed and discussed where appropriate. In those cases where theory does not underlie pedagogical approach directly, all attempts have been made to show indirect relationships to instructional approaches.

The literature on organizational patterns was sparse, and this is reflected in the chapter pertaining to this area. Virtually all of the information on organizational patterns is apparently based on practice rather than on research. In general, organizational patterns seem to develop to meet the needs of particular communities, and while the basic components of ESL programs are quite similar, their arrangement and time allocations differ according to the local school district's needs.

A great number of instructional materials are published for ESL students, but many are directed to the needs of adult students. ESL textbook series and teaching guides having some relevance to elementary and high school limited English proficient (LEP) students are reviewed in this Summary. Also reviewed are ESL series which have been published within the last year and which are not yet widely disseminated or adopted. With few exceptions, ESL materials are apparently based on information from practice. Where theory is specifically mentioned, it is noted.

While there are many current language learning theories, few relate directly to pedagogical approaches. This is due in part to the paucity of complete language learning theories. Most theories surveyed focus on one or two factors in language learning, such as affective factors or cognitive

factors. As a result, the survey is mainly one of issues that have been focused on in the last seven years. The survey provides the range of issues and how they apply to bilingual and English as a second language students from K-12.

Information from Interviews. In order to supplement the information gained from the literature on ESL, a series of telephone interviews was conducted. Individuals interviewed included researchers associated with current second language learning theories, university teacher trainers at major ESL training programs, representatives from Bilingual Education Multifunctional Support Centers (BEMSCs), and both program directors and teachers from local school districts in various parts of the country. Different interview guidelines were used with each group. Thus, researchers were asked about recent modifications to their theories, empirical evidence supporting their theories, implications of their theories for second language teaching and learning, and recommendations on additional reading. Teacher trainers were asked to describe their ESL methodology and other relevant courses, approaches covered and favored, and their evaluation of second language learning theories. BEMSC representatives were asked about ESL approaches currently used in their region, types of ESL service training they provide, use of the first language and culture in programs in their region, and philosophy in different parts of their region towards bilingual and ESL programs, and mainstreaming for limited English proficient students. Interviews with local school district representatives asked about approaches used and recommended, use of the first language and culture, entry-exit criteria for bilingual or ESL programs, time allotment for ESL instruction, instructional materials used, and student and community characteristics.

Information from these interviews is presented in tabular form and discussed at the end of the chapters in this report.

Information Types. Table 1 below illustrates the information type for each section: approaches, materials, organizational patterns, and language learning theories.

TABLE 1

Types of Information Related to ESL Areas Reviewed

	Information from Applied Research	Information from Practice	Information from Theoretical Research	Information from Program Evaluations	Totals
INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES	8	8	50	1	67
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS	3	49	0	0	52
ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS	2	5	6	14	27
THEORIES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING	15	0	58	0	73
TOTALS	28	62	114	15	219

The numbers in Table 1 refer to the number of documents reviewed for each classification. For example, a total of 67 documents was reviewed for

Instructional Approaches, of which 8 dealt with information from Applied Research, 8 with information from practice, 50 with information based on theoretical research, and 1 based on a program evaluation. The information types given in the top row of Table 1 are defined as follows:

- Applied research refers to descriptive studies, experimental studies, classroom centered research, experimental comparisons of approaches, curricula with an overt research base, instructional materials with an overt research base, analyses of teacher characteristics, and analyses of student characteristics.

- Information from practice refers to accounts of "what works," school and program descriptions, information from interviews with practitioners, program models in existence, curricula without overt research base, and instructional materials without overt research base.

- Theoretical research refers to language learning models, language teaching models, proposed or ideal program models, proposed language learning or teaching theories that may or may not be supported by previous research, and proposed or ideal approaches.

- Program evaluations refer to evaluations conducted for entire programs, and include Title VII evaluation, Chapter 1 evaluations, and other evaluations of ESL programs.

As can be seen in Table 1, theoretical research is by far the most common type of information for both instructional approaches and language learning theories. Applied research which includes empirical studies is lacking in all categories. While there is more applied research for theories, there is almost none for approaches, materials, and organizational patterns. Information from practice is most abundant for materials, which implies that materials are generally not based on theory or on empirical research, but on material that has either evolved through classroom activities or field tests carried out in the classroom. Program evaluations contributed most to information on organizational patterns, but to no other area.

This analysis of information types indicates that there is an abundance of theories about both instructional approaches and language learning processes, but little empirical proof for the practical application of either. Information on materials comes mainly from classroom practice, but not from empirical research or from language learning theory. Descriptions of organizational patterns are found mostly in evaluation documents, though some program descriptions were found in other types of information.

II. ESL INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

Recent approaches to teaching foreign and second languages have a variety of features, and no longer are teachers of English as a second language told that there is a single way to teach, as was the case in the 1960's when one method was the accepted standard. Instead of methods, we now have approaches, and the difference is important. A method describes the correct series of techniques that a teacher must engage in in order to accomplish a general learning goal. An approach, on the other hand, describes more of a philosophical position on the nature of language, of teaching, and perhaps of learning, which guides the choice of classroom activities a teacher may select.

This chapter begins by discussing the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), as it was known in its heyday, and which now, having subsided to the status of only one of various approaches, is usually described as audiolingual. Audiolingualism survives in many forms in the 1980's, in instructional materials, curricula, and teaching techniques. It represents a view of language which relies on surface forms, or grammatical structures. New ideas in linguistics, which considered underlying meaning as central to language, have gradually affected language teaching. More recently, a concern with the theoretical language user's linguistic competence has begun to be tempered by a concern for the real language user's communicative competence. Initial ideas about communicative competence tended to be concerned with the learner's ability to use the spoken language in a communicative, mostly social context. The move towards developing communicative competence has been especially apparent in the

foreign language field, where teachers in Europe and in the United States have developed communicative activities to simulate real life communication.

However, the needs and objectives of students learning English as a second language in the U.S. public schools go beyond the goals of traditional communicative competence. Students who must become proficient in English in order to compete successfully in an all-English curriculum need to be more than communicatively competent in the original social-interactional sense. They must learn to be competent in academic language uses as well. Whether this additional language competence becomes an extension of the original concept of social communicative competence that can now embrace academic communicative competence, or whether it is seen as a higher level of language use which involves certain cognitive processes and non-language content and concepts, continues to be a subject of discussion.

This summary of literature on ESL instructional approaches does not attempt to answer this question. Instead, descriptions of the various approaches to teaching ESL are described, and reference is made to the theories upon which each approach is based, the experimental evidence (if any) which supports its use, the instructional materials that employ such an approach, the organizational patterns appropriate to it, and the student characteristics the approach addresses.

The instructional approaches listed below are summarized in this chapter. They are discussed in a roughly chronological order, beginning with the audiolingual method and proceeding towards newer approaches. Within this basic order, approaches with elements in common are discussed

consecutively. Thus, the various approaches conceptually linked to communicative competence are presented immediately following the discussion of Communicative Approaches.

ESL INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

Audiolingual Methods

Silent Way

Community Language Learning

Suggestopedia

Language Experience Approach

New Concurrent Approach

Total Physical Response

Notional/Functional Syllabus

Communicative Approaches

Strategic Interaction Approach

Natural Approach

Cognitive Approaches

Content-Based Approaches

THE AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD

Description. More than an approach to second language teaching, the Audiolingual Method comprises a fully articulated philosophy, technique, curriculum, and instructional materials. In the audiolingual view, the process of learning a language, whether first or second, is seen as the acquisition of a set of habits that permits a speaker to respond correctly to a given stimulus. In order to acquire correct language habits, the learner must practice imitating language models and patterns until they can be produced automatically. The Audiolingual Method was considered the most effective second language approach in the 1960's, but began to lose popularity in the 1970's when appreciation of the implications of cognitive psychology, transformational-generative grammar, and research in first and second language acquisition made behaviorist approaches to learning seem inadequate to many.

Audiolingualism, however, is still defended as an effective teaching method. Politzer and Politzer (1981), for instance, in their reprinted edition of a guide for teaching English as a second language originally published in 1972, continue to espouse audiolingual tenets: The English language is analyzed for its grammatical (rather than functional) characteristics, and extensive coverage is provided of contrastive analysis of English and other languages. Errors are attributed almost exclusively to interference from the first language, and the method for eliminating these errors is an emphasis on pattern practice and repetition drills. The emphasis is strongly on the oral skills, to be followed by a late introduction of reading and writing. The 1984-1985 Boston ESL curriculum

(Parker, 1984) states that the audiolingual method is one of four basic ESL methods, the others being the Natural Approach, a cognitive approach, and the Language Experience Approach.

Second language methodology textbooks often advocate audiolingual techniques at the beginning stages of second language teaching. Rivers and Temperley (1978), for example, distinguish between skill-getting and skill-using in the new language, and present a rich variety of activities for each component. At the skill-getting stage, audiolingual activities are suggested; then these give way to bridging activities to lead students into autonomous interaction. Rivers and Temperley encourage a bottom-up and grammatical approach, in which the discrete component parts of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) are mastered first, and the student gradually progresses toward the integrative aspects of language. A similar approach applied to writing is advocated by Kameen (1978), who describes a continuum of sentence combining exercises that move from mechanical to meaningful to communicative.

Ney (1982) suggests a combined approach using the drill and practice of audiolingual methodology together with grammar rules presented deductively as in cognitive-code approaches.

Theory. As mentioned above, audiolingual teaching is based on a theory of behavioral psychology in which people's responses to different stimuli can be trained through practice and conditioning to become automatic habits. The linguistic theory on which audiolingualism is based is structural linguistics, in which language is seen as a series of patterns with interchangeable pieces. Thus, a sentence containing a subject noun,

verb, and direct object represents a structural pattern which can be varied by changing the specific noun, verb, or object. The theory holds that once a given pattern is acquired as a habit, substitutions can be freely made to express different meanings. The sequence of language skills to be taught in audiolingual methodology is based on studies of child first language acquisition. Since young children listen for an extended period before speaking and then practice oral skills for several years before being taught to read and write, it is assumed that second language learners should follow the same procedure, no matter what their age.

Theories of contrastive analysis hold that the differences found in the grammatical and phonological comparison of two language systems account for the majority of errors that second language learners make. Most errors are attributed to interference (or bad habits) from the first language.

Evidence. Ramirez and Stromquist (1979) conducted a study to identify effective teaching behaviors of primary grade ESL teachers. Teachers prepared grammar-based lessons and taught them over a four week period to beginning and intermediate ESL students. These lessons were videotaped and teaching behaviors were then analyzed. Specific teaching behaviors isolated were in some cases audiolingual and in others tended towards a cognitive-code approach. Student achievement was determined through a pre- and posttest design which assessed oral comprehension and production. Teaching behaviors associated with greater student growth were those oriented towards a cognitive-code methodology and variation in types of lessons; teaching behaviors associated negatively with student growth were those exemplifying audiolingual techniques and incorrect use of visuals and examples. This study found that modeling and student repetition, even in

young elementary grade students, were ineffective. The authors suggest that in second language situations sufficient modeling is probably available from the environment, and that modeling in the classroom should be used sparingly and only as a starting point for more communicative language teaching activities.

A recent study compared the achievement of two groups of Chinese-speaking third graders receiving ESL instruction through two different approaches: audiolingual and Total Physical Response (Anna Wong, personal communication, 1984). The TPR group significantly outperformed the audiolingual group.

Organizational Patterns. The choral repetition of sentence patterns favored in the audiolingual approach is ideally suited to large classes because group responses rather than individual ones are called for. Because most errors are believed to be caused by interference from the student's first language, and drills are advocated as a way of replacing the interfering first language habits with the correct second language ones, a classroom in which all students share the same first language would appear to be the most practical for many audiolingual exercises.

Instructional Materials. Materials published in the 60's and early 70's tend to be audiolingual in approach. Some audiolingual exercises and pattern repetitions continue to appear in current textbooks such as English for a Changing World (Banks, Briggs, Huizenga, Peterson, & Veramendi, 1979; 1984) and Steps to English (Kernan, 1983). In addition, audiolingual methodology is advocated in a number of ESL curriculum guides developed for school districts (Montgomery County Public Schools, 1980; Parker, 1984).

Student Characteristics Addressed. The audiolingual approach addresses developmental characteristics by proposing that second language learners follow the first language acquisition sequence in developing oral skills first, followed by reading and writing. This has been seen as particularly important for younger second language learners, especially those who are preliterate. An additional feature of audiolingual teaching, the emphasis on repetition and drill of sentence patterns, has also been seen as appropriate for younger students because of repetitive patterns found in the literature and games of young native English speakers (e.g., nursery rhymes, stories with a recurring chorus, songs, finger plays, etc.). It should be noted, however, that in children's literature these repetitive segments serve stylistic and melodic functions, whereas audiolingual repetition serves to memorize a grammatical structure. Audiolingual group repetition may also appeal to the learning styles of students who have received previous schooling in a school system based on memorization, rote responses, and group recitations.

AUDIOLINGUAL APPROACH REFERENCES

Banks, C., Briggs, S., Huizenga, H., Peterson, C., & Veramendi, J. (1984). English for a Changing World. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman Co.

Kameen, P.T. (1978). Mechanical, meaningful, and communicative framework for ESL sentence combining exercises. TESOL Quarterly, 37(4), 395-401.

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Parker, R.C. (1984). Boston Public Schools English as a second language curriculum objectives (pilot version 1984-85). (Available from Boston Public Schools, Boston, Massachusetts).

Politzer, R.L., & Politzer, F.W. (1981). Teaching English as a second language (rev. ed.). Malabar, FL: Robert E. Krieger.

Ramirez, A.G., & Stromquist, N.P. (1979). ESL methodology and student language in bilingual elementary schools. TESOL Quarterly, 13(2), 145-158.

Rivers, W.M., & Temperley, M.S. (1978). Practical guide to the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. New York: Oxford University Press.

SILENT WAY

Description. The major objective of this approach is to foster students' independence, autonomy, and responsibility as learners. This is accomplished by subordinating teaching to learning. The teacher facilities the students' development of inner resources by directing learning and remaining silent most of the time. In the first phase, the teacher points to symbols (which in western languages would be letters) on a wall chart that stand for syllables of a language which the students can read. Students are encouraged to pronounce the syllables aloud as the teacher points to them. The chart is called a Fidel and contains all of the spellings for all of the syllables. The symbols are color coded so that symbols that are pronounced alike are the same color. The teacher then switches to a Fidel of the target language. Students can then read syllables aloud in the target language by using their knowledge of the pronounciation of the colors previously introduced.

In the second phase, the teacher uses charts containing some of the most common words and numbers of the target language to lead the students in producing numbers and phrases. Finally, using colored rods of different lengths (1-10 centimeters), the charts, and gestures, the teacher guides the students in talking about the rods. This way, different grammatical structures can be introduced and practiced. By remaining silent most of the time the teacher allows students to use previous knowledge, knowledge of the charts, and other students as resources. The teacher decides which structure or phrase the students will work on and guides them in focusing

on these specific areas. There is no memorization, translation, or repetition in the absence of meaning. The teacher corrects unobtrusively by indicating where the student needs to do more work.

Theory. This approach is based on the following theoretical learning principles set forth by Gattegno as reported in Stevick (1980). Learning is work and must be conscious, the work must be done by the student and take place within the student, the learner works in order to adjust to the unknown world outside himself and to add new internal resources, the student must learn to be aware of the learning process and to control it, and finally, much of the work takes place during sleep or when the mind is idle. Translation, memorization, and repetition or drilling of forms in the absence of meaning are not a part of this approach. This is mainly a cognitive approach which involves conscious learning.

Evidence. There is little empirical evidence for the effectiveness of this approach. Most of the evidence comes from information from practice. Stevick (1980) reports using the Silent Way with mixed success. Some students experienced frustration with the method while others felt challenged. Varvel (1979) also reports observing classes taught with the Silent Way in which students experienced frustration. Varvel points out that it is not obvious that the grammatical forms that students learn with this approach are transferrable to actual language use.

Student Characteristics Addressed. This approach encourages self-pacing as each student works individually with his or her own resources. Cognitive students develop a self-awareness of how they learn. Developing inner

criteria enhances self-image and self-reliarce. Sociolinguistic and environmental characteristics are not addressed with this approach as language that is learned is not put into a social context.

Organizational Patterns and Materials. Gattegno advocates total immersion as the only pattern in which learning takes place (Varvel, 1979). The only materials developed for this approach are the colored charts (Fidel) and the colored cuisinaire rods. Written materials develop from the oral language under study.

SILENT WAY REFERENCES

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COUNSELING-LEARNING OR COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING APPROACH

Description. The counseling-learning or community language learning (CLL) approach was developed by Curran (1976) as a humanistic approach involving the learner's whole person through the use of counseling psychology techniques. The teacher's role is that of facilitator, and the classroom emphasis is on shared, task-oriented activities in which students and teacher all cooperate to aid each other. In the beginning, students sit in a circle and are told to communicate freely in their native language. The teacher, or knower, remains outside the circle and translates each line of the conversation into the target language, which the learners then repeat. Periods of silence and an unpressured atmosphere give students time to think about the language they are hearing. In some cases a tape is made of the session and is played back at the end of the class; if the students wish, the teacher writes out all or part of the target language conversation and briefly explains grammatical structures. Security and acceptance are emphasized in the classroom and are exemplified through the students' mutual support system, the teacher's sensibilities and counseling skills, and the use of translation and the native language in the early stages.

Theory. This approach is based on theories of psychological therapy. This, combined with affective theories of language learning, makes up Counseling-Learning. Curran believes that through each learning experience, the learner discovers himself. The learner is in control of his own language learning experience and the teacher merely points the way to take control of the experience. In this sense, the teacher is a

facilitator. The students discover that the teacher is merely one of many resources found in the language learning situation. Other colleagues are also resources who give support in an unthreatening atmosphere. CLL is also considered to be a communicatively based approach. Students genuinely communicate with each other based on the relationships that have been established in the group. The act of pairing intention with available linguistic resources is exercised throughout the sessions. This is thought to be close to simulating real communication in the target culture.

Evidence. Evidence for the effectiveness of CLL is anecdotal. Stevick (1980) reports students' reaction to the approach and states that not all students reacted favorably. Some felt that this approach did not fulfill their expectations of what a language learning class should be. Others felt that the experience was too "heavy" psychologically. Still, some felt that it was a painless and expanding experience that was fun. Since this approach has been reported to be used for adults only, usually at the university level, little is known about its effectiveness for young students.

Student Characteristics Addressed and Materials. This approach focuses mainly on the affective aspects of language learning. While it may meet the personal needs of individual students, no mention is made of sociolinguistic, developmental, or cognitive aspects. Teachers may explain grammar, but only if the students have an emotional need to know. In other words, teacher and student behavior is based primarily on affective considerations and on cognitive considerations secondarily in this approach. Materials evolve from the student community with the aid of the teacher so that conversations, short reading passages, and written

exercises all evolve through the group's interaction and will. Conversations are created through the students' desire to communicate with one another. The teacher transcribes these conversations and the students analyze them for grammatical, pragmatic, and discourse aspects. This includes cultural and linguistic considerations all in the same analysis.

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING REFERENCES

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SUGGESTOPEDIA

Description. Suggestopedia is the method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist Georgi Lozanov and has recently found adherents in the United States. The objective of communicative competence is achieved by increasing the self-esteem of students through suggestion and by exposing students to the target language while they are in a relaxed state. There are four basic phases to this approach:

1. Relaxation through physical exercise and suggestion;
2. Review of learned material where the teacher and students have short exchanges;
3. Introduction and explanation of new material; and
4. Concert phase where the teacher reads lengthy, culturally relevant dialogues three times to a background of Baroque music. The teacher reads once in a normal voice, once in a whisper, and once in an authoritative voice. The students are allowed to read the text with the target language opposite a translation or explication.

The typical lesson centers around a long dialogue which illustrates cultural and grammatical points. Written exercises and communication activities including role playing are also part of this approach. The use of imagery is encouraged to aid the retention of dialogues and vocabulary (Herr, 1978). Students are encouraged to take a new name and to create a 'persona' that interacts in the target culture. This is thought to facilitate the students' acceptance of unfamiliar culture and behavior and to enhance self-image. The teacher does not negatively or overtly correct students, but does provide positive feedback on the outcomes of communication (Stevick, 1980).

Theory. This approach is based on theories of suggestion and research in brain stimulation. Lozanov believes that learning is both conscious and unconscious and that human learning and memory potential are greater when the mind is in a positive and relaxed state. Through the process of "infantilization" the student overcomes limitations of memory and regresses to a stage when memorization is more spontaneous. Through relaxation the student responds at the subliminal level to the teacher's varying intonation and rhythm. This process brings about hypermnesia, which is the increased ability to recall new material.

Student Characteristics. This approach emphasizes the affective and neurological factors in language learning. This approach appeals to analytic and to holistic learning styles by presenting language as a whole and as divisible parts in different phases. It also takes advantage of the student's preferred input channels, e.g., auditory, visual, or kinesthetic, by providing varied stimuli as well. Cultural aspects are emphasized in the dialogues and individual affective needs are met through the creation of a separate "persona" for that culture. Sociolinguistic concerns come into play through dialogues and short exchanges among students and the teacher. However, this approach does not address the needs of language minority students per se.

Evidence. Various sources provide extensive evidence of the superiority of this approach for learning vocabulary and for memorizing content (Lozanov, 1979). Dale (1972) and Jampolsky (1969) cite experiments in the use of hypnosis in education that enhanced recall of meaningful material (as reported in Hammerman, 1979). In the Iowa school system, Schuster & Prichard (as reported in Hammerman, 1979) used suggestopedia in 26 classes

over two years in grades one through ten across diverse academic subjects such as spelling, reading, health, earth science, life science, art, and German I and II. Using achievement tests as measures, they provide evidence of accelerated achievement, but no evidence of change in student attitudes.

Despite the evidence provided by various studies, several cautions are in order. Scovel (1979) has noted that results reported by Lozanov (1979) are irregular and questionable given the experimental design and techniques employed (p. 261). Another criticism comes from researchers who have applied techniques adapted from suggestopedia, with few results. Wagner and Tilney (1983) used what they term "Superlearning" and found no significant differences between learning vocabulary with this method and with traditional rote memorization. Obviously, careful experimentation is called for before any conclusions regarding the effectiveness of this method can be reached.

Organizational Patterns and Materials. This approach is conducive to large group training. Large groups can then be divided into small groups for conversational activities. Since use of the first language is a part of initial training, this approach is more suitable for homogeneous ESL or bilingual groups or for foreign language training. Materials are largely created by teachers trained in the philosophy and in the method.

SUGGESTOPEDIA REFERENCES

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Hammerman, M.L. (1979). Suggestopedia: An update for second language teaching. (Available from EDRS, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, VA) (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 181 740)

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LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH

Description. The Language Experience Approach (LEA) provides a guided language experience in which students produce their own reading material based on their own interests and activities. Students recount stories or describe their artwork, and the teacher writes their words down verbtim. These student-produced stories are then used as redin material and for other language development activities. Stories dictated to the teacher can be individual, or a group story composed by the class.

The LEA was originally developed as an initial reading program for English speaking children (Van Allen & Allen, 1976), but has also been adapted for use with ESL students. This approach shows pre-literate children that what is said can be written down, and what is written down can be read. Children do not encounter new words in reading, because they themselves have written the stories they read; they do nt encounter new grammatical structures, because they themselves have dictated structures they already know (Murphy, 1980). Although originally intended for a primary grade children, this approach to initial reading has been used successfully with secondary ESL students as well (Levenson, 1979; Rigg, 1981).

One of the features of the LEA is that the teacher acts as a scribe, and does not correct or modify the student's dictation. Rigg (1981) recommends that the teacher read the story aloud after it has been written down, giving the author an opportunity to edit, but not volunteering any corrections. She gives three reasons why teachers should not correct the grammatical form of student dictations. First, it is important that the

student's ideas, not the teacher's, be expressed. Students find it much easier to read what they have actually written, rather than the teacher's version of it. Second, when teachers make changes in a text, this focuses the student's attention on surface form rather than underlying meaning. Third, by recording the authentic language of students, the teacher can gain insights into their current proficiency level and areas where additional teaching may be necessary. When students begin to write (rather than dictate) their own stories, however, Rigg suggests that the teacher type them to improve legibility and correct the spelling to assist in reading.

Theory. Theories which view reading as an integrative language process which requires interaction of reader and text support the Language Experience Approach, which draws on the theories of Smith (1982) and Goodman, and Flores (1979). Reading is seen as the process of deriving meaning from text, and this process is made possible by the reader's life experiences and background knowledge as well as oral language proficiency. For second language readers, there are different opinions about the degree to which oral language proficiency needs to be developed prior to beginning reading. Audiolingual theory held tht a high degree of oral proficiency was necessary before students should be exposed to print in the new language. Levenson (1979) suggests that the LEA be initiated in the student's L1, with a gradual shift into L2. Feeley (1983) feels that this approach to reading can be started before LEP children develop proficiency in speaking English. Rigg (1981), on the other hand, cautions that the LEA is not suitable for students whose oral proficiency in English is extremely limited, or for those whose only exposure to English has been through audiolingual teaching.

Evidence. In the literature reviewed, evidence for the success of the LEA is reported from classroom practice (Levenson, 1979; Rigg, 1981; Feeley, 1983).

Organizational Patterns. The Language Experience Approach requires individualization and grouping, which can most easily be carried out in a self-contained classroom, and which can be facilitated by having aides, parents, and older students help write down children's dictated stories (Rigg, 1981). Feeley (1983) suggests that the LEA can be used effectively in the mainstream classroom containing some LEP children. Levenson (1979), in developing the LEA for secondary LEP students, suggests that bilingual aides, parents, and older students can be helpful in transcribing dictated stories first in the L1 and then gradually in English.

Instructional Materials. The materials most frequently cited for use with ESL students are the original ones developed for English speakers (Van Allen & Allen, 1976). This approach lends itself to teacher developed materrials for stimulating student ideas; the actual reading materials are student developed.

Student Characteristics. The LEA can reportedly be used for ESL students at all grade levels, although it was originally designed for the primary grades. Murphy (1980) believes that it is an approach particularly well suited to students without a literacy background in their L1. For these students, the LEA classroom surrounds them with print of all kinds, and they have a first hand experience in finding out how books are made and what they are for.

Rigg (1981) points out that the LEA is for students, whether at the elementary or secondary level, who are at the initial stages of learning to read in English. Thus, when initial literacy is established, students go on to reading print materials.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH REFERENCES

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NEW CONCURRENT APPROACH

Description. The New Concurrent Approach (NCA) proposed by Rodolfo Jacobson (1981) has as its goal balanced dual language use. With this approach, the teacher initiates the alternation of languages according to pedagogic and sociolinguistic considerations. For example, in a lesson on the history of the Southwest, English can be used to reinforce the role that English speakers played in the settlement, while Spanish can used to reinforce the role that Spanish speakers played. The teacher switches language to reinforce concepts, lexical items, and cultural awareness or to respond to cues initiated by the student. Each switch is seen to have a purpose and to contribute to concept development and continuity of the lesson. This approach is used in content classes only, while use of one language only is seen as more appropriate for language arts classes.

Theory. This approach is based on the theory that unstructured code switching, or "flipflopping" from one language to another, does not provide sufficient information about either language for the child to acquire the grammar of both languages completely. Because structured code switching is used to accomplish a specific learning goal and involves greater chunks of language for specific functions, Jacobson believes that this approach provides sufficient input to facilitate acquisition of both languages equally. Furthermore, Jacobson states that students are able to reach Cummins' (1980) "threshold level" in their first language, thereby strengthening skills that can be transferred when learning the second language.

Evidence. Several studies have been conducted of the Concurrent Approach. Jacobson (1983) recorded five content class segments where the Concurrent Approach was used exclusively and found that in only four percent of the cases did students mismatch the language being used. Further, few deviant utterances were produced by the students.

Gunther (1979), in an experiment with 306 elementary children six to ten years of age, found that using the Concurrent Approach to teach reading enhanced Spanish reading skills but had no effect on English speaking or reading skills. On the other hand, the direct method, where all is taught in English only, had a beneficial effect on the speaking and reading skills of the younger children (six to eight years). However, since Gunther reports on the use of an approach that does not coincide exactly with Jacobson's structured Concurrent Approach, it is difficult to compare or equate the two studies. Gunther concludes that the Concurrent Approach as described by her may be more appropriate for students with high motivation and a well developed first language competence.

Finally, in his final report on a three year project involving the New Concurrent Approach, Jackson (1985) reports tht students taught with this approach did not do significantly better than students in the regular bilingual programs.

Student Characteristics. The New Concurrent Approach as developed by Jacobson (1981) takes into account students' developmental state, ethnic [illegible]nd, sociolinguistic competence, motivation, and cognitive growth. [illegible]oach utilizes the sociolinguistic skills of the teacher and st[illegible] to achieve concept development and enhances motivation by giving

equal prestige to two language and cultures. Jacobson (1983) states: "The NCA method may very well be the answer to how to teach the minority child bilingually as it brings together three very important objectives, i.e., dual language development, attitudinal growth, and academic achievement" (p. 16).

Organizational Patterns. This approach suggests that students be taught content classes by bilingual teachers who have adequate preparation in both languages and in the NCA. Students should be of the same language background and culture.

Materials. There are no materials, for this approach lends itself to adapting and supplementing materials to emphasize concepts (Jacobson, 1983).

NEW CONCURRENT APPROACH REFERENCES

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TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

Description. Total Physical Response (TPR) is an approach which develops students' initial comprehension of the new language through kinesthetic responses to oral commands.

TPR was developed by James Asher and is based on three basic concepts: understanding language should precede speaking it, understanding can best be developed through commands that call for physical response from the students, and speaking should never be forced, as it emerges spontaneously when the learner is ready (Asher, 1982).

The teacher gives commands in the target language, acting them out simultaneously. Then students are given the same commands, and they too act them out. Students are not required to speak at first, but demonstrate comprehension of the teacher's commands by following them. Commands at first use quite simple language, such as "Stand up. Pick up the ball. Close the window." Later they become more complex, and can even use indirect commands such as, "Would you mind closing the window?" When speech emerges, students begin to give commands to the teacher and to each other.

Vetter (1983) believes that while TPR is effective in developing social interaction skills of students, it does not teach the cognitive and academic language skills needed to succeed in the mainstream English classroom. She has developed an approach called TPR-Plus, which focuses on the academic communicative needs of the classroom, rather than the social communicative needs which she feels can be adequately developed outside the classroom.

Theory. The theoretical basis for TPR is that a second language can best be learned as children learn their first language. Asher (1982) believes that as listening precedes speaking in first language acquisition, so it should in second language acquisition. Furthermore, he cites the way in which young children's early language learning is linked to physical activity through listening to commands given by parents such as "Come here," "Sit down," "Give me the blue block," etc. This activity engages both left and right hemispheres. Speech emerges when children are ready, and they are ready after extensive practice in listening. Second language learning, whether in children or adults, can, in Asher's view, be most effective and stress-free when it applies a strategy that is congruent with natural biological development.

Evidence. The Total Physical Response approach has been the subject of a number of experimental studies conducted by Asher and others. Initially studies were conducted of children and adults learning foreign languages, both in classroom and in laboratory settings. The results indicated that TPR was effective in developing proficiency in the second language, and that there was transfer of skills to reading, writing, and speaking. Similar results were found in studies of adults and children learning ESL. In two of these studies, TPR was compared to audiolingual teaching, and students in the experimental TPR groups outperformed the audiolingual groups on measures of reading, vocabulary, comprehension, and oral production (Asher, 1982).

Asher (1982) describes recent studies of brain lateralization to demonstrate how the left brain processes language, while the right brain

responds directly to commands by performing the appropriate action. He cites this finding as evidence that supports the efficacy of initial second language learning through right brain activity, which he believes can be engaged through the direct link of verbal commands to body actions.

Organizational Patterns. TPR can be used in heterogeneously grouped classrooms because the L1 is not used to mediate comprehension. Since the teacher provides continual input as language model, the TPR class is teacher-directed at the initial stages. When speech emerges and students are ready to give their own commands, small group work is effective. TPR requires a certain amount of space for students to move around in, and some of the typical commands tend to elicit a certain amount of noise (jumping, clapping, etc.), making this approach somewhat difficult to carry out except in a self-contained classroom.

TPR has been used to teach ESL in bilingual programs, in pull-out programs in elementary schools (Asher, 1982), in high school HILT programs (Vetter, 1983), and in adult education (Zuern, 1982).

Instructional Materials. A variety of instructional materials using the TPR approach are available. Asher (1982) has developed a guidebook for teachers which can be used as a basis for teaching any second language. Teaching English through Action (Segal, 1981) is a teacher's guide specifically for ESL teachers at all levels.

TPR exercises are also included in some recent textbook series, such as Rainbow Collection (Marino, Martini, Raley, & Terrell, 1984) and Big Bird's Yellow Book (Zion, 1984).

Student Characteristics. TPR addresses the need of young children to learn by doing and to involve motor skills. However, it is claimed that it is equally suitable for older students and adults. Zuern (1982), for example, used the approach in an adult ESL class of mostly Indochinese students, but found that students wanted some grammatical explanation, and so the approach was modified and used for only about one third of the class time. Vetter (1983) reports on successful use of TPR, modified to reflect academic language needs, with junior and senior high school ESL students.

The literature reviewed did not address the possible effect of cultural differences on student motivation or willingness to participate in a non-traditional approach such as Total Physical Response.

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE REFERENCES

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THE NOTIONAL/FUNCTIONAL SYLLABUS

Description. There is no single approach which is notional/functional. Notions and functions are a way of looking at language and a way of creating and maintaining a linguistic inventory. Semantically based, notions and functions describe what people say and do with their language. This view of language is used mainly as a linguistic syllabus and has no particular methodology attached to it. However, different communicative approaches such as strategic interaction, use of drama, roleplays, and simulations employ notions and functions to focus lessons on language. For example, lessons can center on functions of "offering help" and "accepting", or on situations, topics, or grammatical structures involving functions. Approaches based on this syllabus are thought to be learner centered because an assessment of the learner's needs is carried out and authentic language use activities are created around these needs. Within this framework, learners view language embedded in a social context and can choose among different notions and functions to express themselves. One approach to teach writing through language functions is proposed by Sampson (1980). The teacher first creates intention by introducing the functions required by the task and then directs students to specific language required for the task. By first focusing on task requirements, student motivation and attention are heightened. Through the pairing of function and language elements that fulfill that function, students develop awareness of language use and language-specific abilities. The Brownsville, Texas Secondary English Language Development (ELD) program has implemented a functionally based curriculum which develops language meanings, functions, and student's communicative abilities before developing the use of language rules and skills (Canales & Carter, 1985).

Theory. The notional/functional syllabus is based on a semantic and pragmatic theory of language. In this view, speakers use language to accomplish different communicative tasks. For example, the expressions "please close the window" and "it's chilly in here" may both be seen as requests to close the window under certain circumstances. Sociolinguistic theory also underlies this view in that the choice of language to fulfill a particular function may be governed by the setting, the topic, and the social and psychological roles of the speakers.

Evidence. There is little evidence to date that the use of notional/functional syllabus with any approach is beneficial. Until a defined methodology is proposed, there is some question that such a syllabus by itself would lead to communicative competence (Barnett, 1980). Preliminary findings of a study which investigated the effectiveness of a communicative approach combined with a functional/notional curriculum show increased student achievement in classes with a high degree of program implementation and with a large portion of class time spent in interactive learning centered activities (Canales & Carter, 1985).

Student Characteristics. The notional/functional syllabus offers students a choice of functions and language to fit their communicative, affective, and cognitive needs. Awareness of notions and functions also contributes to students' sociolinguistic knowledge.

Organizational Patterns and Materials. The notional/functional syllabus suggests that students participate in interactive communication to understand language use fully. By extension, this type of activity is best

accomplished in small heterogeneous groups or dyads. Materials written around notions and functions were produced originally in Britain, and are used extensively abroad, although some new materials published in the United States incorporate notions and functions.

NOTIONAL/FUNCTIONAL SYLLABUS REFERENCES

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COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHES

Description. Communicative approaches have as their general objective the development of the ability to use a second language for communication of meaning. They underlie much of the recent literature addressing methodology and curriculum in ESL and foreign language teaching. Proponents of communicative approaches emphasize the development of interpersonal communication skills as the major goal (Taylor, 1983; Savignon, 1983; Nattinger, 1984). Additionally, theorists have indicated that a communicative approach should go beyond face-to-face interaction and include interaction with text (Allwright, 1984), and specific suggestions for incorporating reading and writing activities into the communicative classroom have been proposed (Lezburg & Hilferty, 1978; Watson, 1982; DiPietro, 1983).

Arguing for the superiority of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) over other approaches or methods, Nattinger (1984) states:

> ...CLT has the possibility of being less vague than former "communicative competence' methods, less limited than notional-functional ones, less ethnocentric than many humanistic methods, and less psycholinguistically objectionable than audiolingual ones. (p. 391)

He identifies three main features which characterize CLT: (1) the goal of communicative competence at each level, beginning to advanced; (2) exercises that develop interaction between learners and their environment; and (3) a focus on the processes or strategies involved in understanding and communicating meaning.

Taylor (1983) cites five features of communicative methodology: (1) students participate in extended discourse; (2) an "information gap" is provided so that students have a real need to communicate; (3) students have opportunities to engage in unrehearsed communication; (4) students participate in goal oriented activities; and (5) students have opportunities to attend to many factors simultaneously during a conversation.

Savignon (1983) proposes five components for a second language curriculum that has communicative competence as its goal. She stresses that these five components should be integrated in the curriculum, without any one of them becoming the sole focus of the course:

1. Language Arts - language analysis and language practice activities.
2. Language for a Purpose - immersion for at least part of the time, with content-based and action-based activities.
3. Personal Use of Language - activities which recognize the learner's personality, values, and learning experiences.
4. Theater Arts - drama activities, including role-playing and simulations.
5. Beyond the Classroom - authentic interaction with the second language community.

The majority of documents reviewed emphasize the development of social interaction skills within the communicative approach. The rationale expressed for this focus is the lack of communicative competence developed in previous approaches, in particular in the teaching of foreign languages, including English as a foreign language in non-English speaking countries. How this relates to ESL in an English speaking country such as the United States is not addressed, except indirectly by Taylor (1978) who indicates

that students (referring to foreign students at American universities) are not in need of "free conversation" in their ESL classes because the community supplies this need.

Theory. Communicative Language Teaching and communicative approaches in general are based on theories of communicative competence, which comprises a language user's competence beyond the merely grammatical or linguistic to include sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983). Thus, the language learner needs to learn not only the grammatical system of the new language, but also how to use the language in a socially appropriate way in different contexts, how to use the language's rules of discourse, and how to use communication strategies. Omaggio (1983) argues for the need for an organizing principle of language proficiency as a theoretical base for a communicative approach, and cites Canale and Swain's (1980) four types of competence as necessary for defining proficiency.

Pedagogical theories cited by Nattinger (1984) for specific components of CLT are DiPietro's strategic interaction for oral language skills (1983), Zamel's (1983) process approach for writing skills, and, for reading skills, schema theory as described by Carrell & Eisterhold (1983), and the interaction of the reader with the text as proposed by Widdowson (1979).

Krashen's (1981) Monitor Model is also cited as a theory that supports the development of communicative competence through unconscious acquisition rather than through conscious learning.

Evidence. Savignon (1983) conducted a classroom study on teaching for communicative competence with college students of French. The experimental

groups had, in addition to the regular course, one period a week of communication activities, while the control group used this extra period for language lab drill and practice. On the posttest all groups scored about the same on linguistic achievement, but only the experimental groups could actually converse in French in communicative settings. Another study by Savignon (1983) involved a longitudinal case study of her three children's acquisition of communicative competence in French through an immersion experience.

Organizational Patterns. Communicative approaches emphasize student-student interaction and small group activities, so that classroom organization should provide for grouping that is heterogeneous both by language background (so that communication in English is a necessity) and by degree of proficiency (so that more proficient students can serve as group leaders and peer tutors). Real interaction with native English speakers should also be a component of a communicative approach, which could be achieved through two-way bilingual programs which involve both English speaking and non-English speaking children, and programs in which both types of students share some school activities.

Instructional Materials. The notional/functional syllabus promotes communicative language teaching because it organizes course content around different uses of language, rather than grammar. Suggested classroom activities to develop communicative competence are available from various sources (Kramsch, 1981; Savignon & Berns, 1984; Littlewood, 1981; Eckard & Kearny, 1981). Suggested texts are those published by the University of Pittsburgh on developing communicative competence (1975), Milk and Honey (Lanzano & Bodman, 1981); Connections (Boyd & Boyd, 1981); Notion by Notion

(Ferreira, 1981); and various Canadian, British, and European ESL textbooks. In addition, Taylor (1983) recommends the use of techniques which depend on teacher developed or adapted materials.

Student Characteristics. The literature reviewed on communicative approaches to second language teaching is based almost exclusively on college level students of foreign languages or foreign students in intensive ESL courses at the university level. The communicative language teaching techniques advocated are in many cases easily adapted to younger learners, and in fact many bear similarities to interactive learning activities commonly found in mainstream elementary classrooms (e.g., discussion activities, show and tell, group projects, thematic units of study which encompass activities in various curricular areas, etc.). Development of students' communicative competence addresses socio-affective needs, but does not develop cognitive academic language skills except insofar as reading, writing, and other school-related language activities are included (as in Lezberg & Hilferty, 1978; DiPietro, 1983; Watson, 1982).

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STRATEGIC INTERACTION APPROACH

Description. This approach centers around communicative dilemmas which are resolved by students themselves (Di Pietro, 1982). At the heart of this approach is the open-ended scenario which presents a problem to be solved by the students. Working in small groups of 9 to 12, students discuss the strategy of the solution and pair their intentions either with language that they know or with language elicited from the teacher. The teacher serves to coach choice of linguistic expressions and speech functions and as a resource for explaining grammar within the context of the scenario. The students then select representatives to rehearse the scenario and get feedback on the outcomes of their communication.

Theory. This approach draws on Wilkin's (1976) proposed notional/functional syllabus and situational approaches to language teaching to provide opportunities for the group dynamics espoused by Curran (1976). Di Pietro (1982) adds the notion of roles as episodic or non-episodic where episodic roles are based on highly predictable exchanges determined by the task and non-episodic roles are based on non-predictable exchanges governed by individual intention.

Student Characteristics, Organizational Patterns and Materials. This approach caters to students' motivational and personal needs by providing a framework for creating intention. Students generate their own ideas and pair them to language. Sociolinguistic aspects enter in the coaching phase where students are given feedback by the teacher on the appropriateness of their language choices. Since this approach involves solving dilemmas, it

is suitable for older students who are proficient enough to communicate about intention in the second language or for students who share a common first language. For this reason, strategic interaction is used for foreign language training. There is no evidence yet for the effectiveness of this approach beyond experimental programs at the university level. Materials are teacher created and involve writing scenarios.

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THE NATURAL APPROACH

Description. The Natural Approach has as its goal interpersonal communicative skills. It is based on Krashen's Monitor Model (Krashen, 1982) which makes a distinction between acquisition and learning. This approach is based on the following principles: comprehension precedes production, production emerges gradually, acquisition activities are central, and the affective filter must be lowered for acquisition to take place.

Terrell's (1981) Natural Approach proposes instructional techniques that facilitate the natural acquisition process of a language. Teachers must provide comprehensible input to language learners, and this input must contain a message that is needed by the learners.

Comprehensible input is achieved by using visual aids, gestures, sentence expansions, open ended sentences, and prefabricated phrases. To lower the affective filter, oral production is delayed until students have acquired enough language to feel comfortable speaking the target language. The teacher accepts all attempts by the learners to communicate, even if these are expressed incorrectly or in the first language.

Reading and writing are taught as natural extensions of communication tasks encountered in listening and speaking. For example, a task involving going to the store and buying a quart of milk may include reading signs in the aisles. A writing task may involve writing a note to a friend telling him/her to meet you at a certain place and time.

Drilling of the sort found in the audiolingual approach is not included in this approach because it is not seen as beneficial to acquisition and serves no real communicative purpose.

Theory. This approach is based on Krashen's (see Gingras, 1978) Monitor Model which makes a distinction between learning, defined as conscious learning of grammar rules, and acquisition, which is unconscious and enhanced by comprehensible input. The Monitor Model is based on evidence from natural order studies (DeVilliers & DeVilliers, 1973; Brown, 1973; and Burt & Dulay, 1975), input studies of caretaker language (Snow & Ferguson, 1977; Clark & Clark, 1977), the affective filter (Burt & Dulay, 1975; Gardner & Lambert, 1972), age (Scarcella & Higa, 1981) and first language use (Newmark, 1966).

This approach is also based on and incorporates aspects of other approaches, e.g., Total Physical Response (Asher, 1982), Community Language Learning (Curran, 1976), and Suggestopedia (Lozanov, 1982). Krashen (1982) reports that all these approaches are based on cognitive and affective considerations.

Evidence. Very little evidence for the effectiveness of this approach exists. Evidence for the ineffectiveness of monitoring (which the Natural Approach rejects) was found by Houck, Robertson, and Krashen (1978). Their findings were that the monitor could be used effectively in writing only when students were given time, knew the rule, and focused on form. Dicker (1981) proposes that, since knowledge and use of rules are variable, the teacher's presentation of the rule or elicitation of the rule is important in the application of the monitor to writing.

Evidence for the existence of comprehensible input comes from caretaker studies in first language acquisition (Snow & Ferguson, 1977) and Krashen (1982) states that exposure to interlanguage talk may be useful at early stages of acquisition (p. 128). However, exactly what makes input comprehensible and the effects of different types of input are still unknown.

Organizational Patterns. This approach suggests the heterogeneous groups may be taught and that small group activities would be useful for communicative activities. Activities that encourage exchanges with native speakers would also be in order.

Instructional Materials. Materials written with this approach in mind are the Rainbow Collection (Marino, Martini, Raley, & Terrell, 1984) for elementary students in ESL classes and Live Action English by Romijn and Seeley (1979).

Student Characteristics. This approach addresses age and developmental characteristics by positing that the processes that are used to acquire a first language are the same as those used to acquire a second language. Krashen (1982) states that the differences are developmental in that once learners reach Piaget's formal operations stage, changes in the affective state occur and may hamper language acquisition. Sociolinguistic and environmental characteristics include the development of communicative competence but not that of academic language proficiency (Cummins, 1984). Motivational aspects are addressed by offering activities to lower the affective filter, such as delayed production.

NATURAL APPROACH REFERENCES

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COGNITIVE APPROACHES

Description. Cognitive approaches to second language teaching first emerged as a reaction to audiolingual theory and methodology, and reflected the ideas about language developed through transformational linguistics. The original cognitive-code approach was grammatically-based, but more recent cognitive approaches have been linked with communicative and functional curricula.

Cognitive approaches focus on the mental activity involved in second language learning rather than merely on observable language behavior. Some of the features associated with the original cognitive-code approach are identified in Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979) as:

1. Language skills are not separated and sequenced, but all four skills are developed concurrently.
2. Grammatical rules are provided to students, rather than expecting them to work them out inductively.
3. Errors are expected and are seen as part of a developmental process of approximation toward the native speaker model.
4. Teaching points are contextualized and repetition is not a central classroom activity.

Cognitive approaches make use of prior knowledge and emphasize the information processing capability of the learner. The L1, rather than being viewed as a source of interference, is seen as a bridge that can be used to transfer valuable knowledge to the L2. Renault (1981), for instance, has developed a series of reading strategies in which students' prior knowledge of semantic concepts in the L1 is utilized in developing comprehension of an L2 text. The L1 is even interwoven into the L2 reading text as an aid to comprehension. Lott (1983) also recommends seeing the L1

as an asset rather than as a deficit. He suggests that teachers help students analyze the errors they make that are due to L1 interference and then provide them with translation exercises in which they can consciously practice finding correct English equivalents for their own personal errors previously identified.

Linking a cognitive approach to other instructional approaches has been suggested by various authors. Ney (1982) suggests that the insights of transformational grammar can be used for deductive presentations of those rules which reflect universal grammar so that students understand them at a conscious level, and that audiolingual drill and practice can be effective for learning those aspects of grammar which are peculiar to the target language.

Vetter (1983) has linked Total Physical Response (TPR) with a cognitive approach by teaching in command form the academic language linked to concepts that reflect the language needed for successful classroom participation. Hewlett-Gomez (1984) has linked the concept of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1980) to questioning strategies based on a multi-level cognitive framework which combines Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy with ESL activities for each type of question. In this way, the teacher's input is made comprehensible by questions that allow children to develop their current knowledge and proficiency level. A similar integration of a cognitive approach with the Natural Approach is found in a curriculum developed for an ESL program in Paterson, New Jersey. Feneran and Hilferty (1984) have used Meeker's (1970) interpretation of Guilford's Structure of intellect and Terrell's (1981) Natural Approach to develop ESL activities that address children's individual differences in both cognitive development and language proficiency.

A development within cognitive approaches to second language learning is recent work done on learning strategies (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1984; Chamot & O'Malley, 1984). Learning strategies are special techniques that students can use to help them learn and remember new information, and they can be applied to both receptive and productive second language skills. Stewner-Manzanares, Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper, & Russo (1984) developed a teacher's guide for using learning strategies in the ESL secondary classroom by embedding strategy instruction within a variety of language learning and acquisition activities. Although the approach of learning strategies is cognitive, instruction in their use can be combined with any ESL instructional approach in which conscious learning plays a key role.

Theory. The cognitive-code approach was based on Chomsky's (1957) ideas of language being a rule-based rather than a habit formation phenomenon. Insights from cognitive psychology on the nature of learning and the central role of mental activity have continued to inform cognitive approaches to second language learning.

Evidence. Few experimental studies of cognitive approaches to second language teaching have been conducted. Two were identified that compared student achievement to instructional approach, one at the primary grade level and the other with high school subjects.

Ramirez and Stromquist (1979) identified primary grade teaching behaviors that were either audiolingual or cognitive in approach. Student achievement under the two types was compared, and greater student growth was found in the classrooms of teachers who used a cognitive approach.

O'Malley et al. (1984) conducted a study with high school ESL students to find out if learning strategy instruction would improve their vocabulary learning, listening comprehension, and academic speaking proficiency. Although the experimental groups did not outperform the control group on the vocabulary measure, they did do better on most of the listening comprehension tests. For the academic speaking measure, however, the experimental groups significantly outperformed the control group.

Organizational Patterns. Cognitive approaches relying on the L1 to facilitate comprehension call for linguistically homogeneous classes with bilingual teachers or aides. Cognitive approaches which do not use the L1 extensively would be suitable in linguistically heterogeneous classes with monolingual teachers. It should be pointed out, however, that even in the latter case, a creative use of community linguistic resources and peer tutoring can facilitate ESL instruction, as is demonstrated in the ESL program in Fairfax County, Virginia (E. Eisenhower, personal communication, 1984).

Grouping by language proficiency and by cognitive developmental stage would be an asset in implementing some of the more complex cognitive-based curricula, such as those suggested by Hewlett-Gomez (1984) and Feneran and Hilferty (1984).

Instructional Materials. Materials written with a cognitive approach in mind call on the student to reflect on the material being learned, to make hypotheses about the new language, and to actively participate in the learning process. Virtually any materials could be used in this way provided the teacher builds this component into the curriculum.

An ESL curriculum incorporating cognitive theories with the Natural Approach is currently under development in Paterson, New Jersey (Feneran & Hilferty, 1984).

Student Characteristics. Developmental and linguistic differences are accounted for in some of the more recent cognitive approaches. The grammatically based cognitive approaches seem best suited for older students; indeed, the proponents of this type of approach refer to university level students. In the O'Malley et al. (1984) study on learning strategies instruction, differences were found between ethnic groups: Hispanic students in the experimental groups used the new learning strategies for vocabulary effectively, while Asian students were more effective vocabulary learners when they used their familiar rote strategies.

As with other approaches, the issue of learning style differences has not been adequately addressed.

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CONTENT-BASED APPROACHES

Description. A content-based approach to ESL involves the incorporation of subject matter appropriate to the student's age and grade level with the teaching of second language skills. Content-based ESL is basically a curriculum, but because the subject matter to be taught must be modified so that it is comprehensible to the learner, and such modification necessitates certain types of teaching strategies, it can perhaps be termed an approach in its own right.

Mohan (1979) has analyzed three types of content-based instruction. In the first, the focus is completely on the content and students learn the L2 almost incidentally. An example of effective use of this type of instruction is the Finding Out/Descubrimiento math and science program (De Avila & Duncan, 1980;1984) in which language skills have been developed simultaneously with math and science concepts through:

- small group activities that focus on task
- mixed ability/language proficiency groups
- peer cooperation on tasks of intrinsic interest
- student involvement in management routines.

An additional feature of this program which differs from other examples of content-based language instruction is the use of bilingual instructions and workbooks, and the fact that children can use Spanish, English, or any combination of languages in order to accomplish the assigned tasks. (It should be remembered that the primary purpose of this program is to teach science and math, and that the increased English proficiency of students completing it is almost a by-product.)

Mohan (1979) describes a second type of content-based instruction as a combination of content teaching with language teaching. One of the technical difficulties associated with this type of program is that the language has to be sequenced in tandem with content sequencing. An example of this type of instructional program is being developed in Canada, where ESL modules combine conceptual learning and language learning (Allen & Howard, 1981). These modules contain both grammatical and functional/notional skills development which are applied to content in order to develop concepts and practice study skills.

Mohan's (1979) third type of content-based instruction is that in which the language is taught specifically for the purpose of acquiring content. English for Special Purposes (ESP) courses fit into this category. In such courses, students learn the specific English needed for a particular purpose, such as studying medicine, working for the tourist industry, working as an airline traffic controller, etc. An extension of this type of ESL instruction has been called English for Academic Purposes (EAP), in which students focus on those language skills which they will need for university study in English. The examples just cited deal with older learners at the tertiary level. An extension of the notion of EAP could possibly be made for the secondary and even elementary educational levels through content-based ESL instruction designed to prepare students for the academic language demands of the mainstream classroom.

Searfoss, Smith, and Bean (1981) believe that "the content area classroom...is a rich social, linguistic, and cognitive environment in which second language learners should thrive - thrive, if instruction

provides the kind of linguistic and cognitive support these students need" (p. 384). They believe that all four language skills should be integrated and taught simultaneously, and have developed a guided writing procedure which includes listening and speaking, cooperative group work, and reading as well as writing.

Riley (1978) emphasized the development of reading strategies that focus on comprehension of concepts and that are transferable to a variety of reading tasks as a way of preparing ESL students to comprehend the content-based reading they will do in mainstream classes.

Theory. Theories of language teaching which underlie content-based approaches include elements of grammatical, communicative, cognitive, and experiential views. The need for sequencing of grammatical structures is seen as necessary by some proponents of content-based ESL (Allen & Howard, 1981; Mohan, 1979), whereas others believe that a cognitive task can provide experiences that elicit the kind of communication that fosters language development (De Avila & Duncan, 1984; Searfoss et al., 1981).

De Avila's theoretical framework is the most complex of the literature reviewed on content-based instruction (De Avila & Duncan, 1984). He describes three factors underlying the success of an individual learner: interest/motivation, intelligence/experience, and psycho-social access to learning. All must be engaged before learning can take place. This theoretical framework draws from various disciplines, including cognitive psychology, sociology, and linguistics.

Evidence. A great deal of evidence supports the development of second language proficiency through content-based instruction. The many immersion studies in Canada have shown that students can acquire second language skills and subject matter simultaneously. De Avila and Duncan (1984) conducted experimental studies of children in math and science programs, and documented their increased language proficiency as well as the development of their science and math concepts. Whether specific language instruction needs to accompany content-based instruction in the L2 has apparently not been documented, though some authors assume that it does (Allen & Howard, 1981; Chamot, 1983).

Organizational Patterns. Immersion programs are the most obvious example of an organizational pattern in which a content-based approach to ESL can function. However, this approach can function equally well in bilingual or separate ESL programs. Sheltered or transitional classes, in which all students are LEP and the content material is adjusted for their proficiency level, are found both as part of bilingual programs (California State Department of Education, 1984) and as part of intensive ESL programs (Fairfax County Public Schools, 1981). The teacher requirements for a content-based approach are knowledge of the subject matter as well as training in ESL methodology. At the elementary school level it may be easier to find ESL teachers who can handle content teaching than it is at the secondary level. One option at the secondary level is to provide inservice training in ESL methodology to subject matter teachers.

At the classroom level, certain types of organizational patterns seem more appropriate than others for content-based ESL instruction. Grouping for

cooperative work on tasks facilitates the acquisition of both concepts and language skills. In fact, grouping becomes a necessity in classrooms where widely different proficiency levels are found; in such classes peer tutoring by the more proficient students is a natural outcome of content-based teaching (Saville-Troike, 1984).

Instructional Materials. The need for content-based ESL materials was expressed by most of the practitioners interviewed. Locally developed materials were reported in use in some school districts. Materials developed elsewhere, such as the Canadian ESL Modules (Allen & Howard, 1981), may have potential for adaptation to U.S. students. Commercial publishers are beginning to produce materials designed for content-based ESL instruction, such as English Across the Curriculum (Maggs, 1983) and Odyssey (Kimbrough, Palmer, & Byrne, 1984); others are in the process of development (Chamot, in press).

Student Characteristics. Perhaps the most important way in which content-based instruction addresses student characteristics is by providing motivational impetus. De Avila and Duncan (1984), for instance, believe that science and math are of intrinsic interest to students because they cut across cultures and are part of daily life experience everywhere.

Content-based instruction also addresses differing developmental stages by focusing on concepts appropriate to age and grade levels of the students.

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APPROACHES: INTERVIEW RESULTS

As part of the telephone interviews, two questions were asked about instructional approaches. Teacher trainers were asked which methodological approach they emphasized in their ESL methods courses, and school districts and Bilingual Education Multifunctional Support Centers (BEMSCs) were asked which approaches to ESL instruction were recommended or in general use in their schools. The second question, which was asked of school districts and BEMSCs but not to teacher trainers, concerned the amount of the first language (L) used for instructional purposes within or outside of the ESL program.

As can be seen in Table 2, the approaches most widely cited by school districts, BEMSCs, and teacher trainers are the Audiolingual, eclectic, Natural Approach, Total Physical Response, and general communicative approaches. Eclectic was cited when the interviewee stated that no particular approach was followed and that teachers adjusted the curriculum to fit their particular students' needs. In describing the use of language for instruction, most school districts and BEMSCs stated that the first language was minimally used or used depending on the program and the student/teacher combination.

TABLE 2

APPROACHES

Question	Response categories	RESPONDENTS: School Districts (n=8)	BEMSCs (n=8)	Tchr Trainers (n=6)	Total (n=22)
Approaches Used or Taught	Audiolingual	1	7	1	9
	Eclectic	4	4	0	8
	Natural	1	4	2	7
	TPR	1	4	2	7
	Communicative	2	1	3	6
	Silent Way	0	2	2	4
	Other	0	1	2	3
	Cultural	2	0	0	2
	ESL through content	0	1	1	2
	LEA	1	1	0	2
	Peer teaching	0	1	1	2
	Suggestopedia	0	1	1	2
	Bilingual	0	0	1	1
	CAI	0	1	0	1
	CLL	0	0	1	1
	Concurrent	0	0	1	1
Use of L1 for instruction	L1 not used	0	1	NOT APPLICABLE	
	L1 minimally used	0	4		
	L1 frequently used	0	0		
	L1 used depending on program and student/ teacher mix	1	3		
	L1 used separately from L2	3	0		

III. ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS

ESL is taught within a variety of organizational patterns, including differing models of bilingual programs, pull-out programs, high intensity language training (HILT) programs, tutorial programs, cluster or magnet programs, and various types of immersion programs (Deluca & Swartzloff, 1984). The choice of organizational pattern depends on a number of factors, including number of students of the same language background at each grade level, availability of specialist teachers and instructional materials, and community and parental needs and preferences.

Within each type of organizational pattern, the delivery of ESL instruction can vary widely in terms of scheduling, content, and methodology. In the discussion that follows, the literature identified on organizational patterns is discussed under three categories of program:

1. ESL within bilingual programs
2. ESL only programs
3. ESL through immersion programs

Finally, the literature on classroom organizational patterns for ESL is briefly reviewed and the links between classroom organization and instructional approaches are described.

ESL Within Bilingual Programs

ESL instruction is a required component of bilingual programs. In general, ESL is scheduled for one or more class periods during the day, and for most

of the remainder of the school day students receive subject matter instruction in their first language (L1). Children often join their English speaking peers for those school activities requiring less English proficiency, such as art, music, and physical education. In transitional bilingual program models, children are mainstreamed into all-English classrooms as soon as they reach certain levels of English proficiency. Thus, the ESL program serves to get children started in English and to develop the types of English language skills that children need in order to meet program exit test criteria.

The majority of bilingual programs serve the elementary school level, though some school districts have instituted bilingual programs at the high school level (Shore, 1981; New York City Board of Education, 1981a, 1981b). In addition, some bilingual programs include non-LEP students in order to promote two-way bilingual education and to reduce the isolation of LEP students (San Diego Unified School District, 1982).

Organizational patterns which include English proficient students in bilingual programs capitalize on these human resources to help develop the English proficiency of their LEP classmates in a variety of ways. An integrated bilingual curriculum model in Boston integrates both teaching and learning by teaming the teachers and classrooms of English speakers with speakers of another language at the same grade level (Brisk & Wurzel, 1979). Planned interaction, teaching, and learning between the two groups not only fosters positive attitudes but also provides important second language input for both groups. Project SELL (Spanish/English Language Learning) in New York City uses both English speaking and Spanish speaking students to serve as role models and assist in developing second language skills in their peers (Neidich, 1980).

Individualization of ESL instruction in order to meet students' individual needs is a feature of some bilingual organizational patterns. In a New York City school district serving four different non-English language groups, for example, individualized instructional programs were developed for English as a second language, as well as for Spanish, Chinese, Greek, and Italian (Rex, 1981). An individualized bilingual curriculum was developed for children of migrant workers travelling between Texas and Washington which provides detailed planning and tracking features so that children can continue in a sequential program even though they miss school as a result of travel to a new location (Deluca & Swartzloff, 1984). Program individualization in order to meet different levels of bilingual proficiency is part of the bilingual organizational pattern in Washington, where ESL as a separate component is offered only to Spanish dominant students, and bilingual students are provided with language development components in each language (Hewlett-Gomez, Rawson, Bailey, Crosbie, & Arambul, 1980).

Individualization of a program in order to meet student needs can also be seen in innovative scheduling such as that of a program in Yakima, Washington. During the seasonal periods when migrant teenagers must work during the day, high school courses in both Spanish and English are offered at night so that students do not fall behind in school (L. Cordero, Yakima teacher, personal communication, 1984).

In California a study is currently underway of four different schools with bilingual programs in which a carefully documented transfer program from nearly all first language instruction to nearly all second language (L2)

instruction is being implemented (California State Department of Education, 1984a). In these programs, students begin with a combination of native language instruction and ESL, then move into "sheltered" English, which is special instruction designed to be comprehensible to LEP students. Gradually students begin to receive some mainstream English instruction until they can be completely mainstreamed. A similar type of transfer curriculum was proposed by Chamot (1983) in which ESL instruction merges into English language development in the various subject areas in a sequence that links English proficiency levels to the language demands of particular content areas.

One difficulty in implementing bilingual programs occurs in communities where there is more than one non-English language spoken. Often there is not a concentration of a single language group large enough at one school or grade level to make it feasible to develop a full-scale bilingual program. This problem has been addressed in a variety of ways, from instituting ESL programs with some native language support to using a center approach to bring together LEP students from different schools in an area. In Okaloosa County, Florida, for example, a central bilingual elementary school has been designated to which children from other schools are bused (Thompson, 1980). At this school, bilingual programs in French, Vietnamese, Spanish, and Thai are offered. For high school students, a central school offers ESL before the regular school day begins, and aides who speak the languages of the various linguistic groups attend class with individual students to provide translation and explanation in the L1.

Thus, the ESL component in bilingual programs is organized in a variety of ways, ranging from pull-out ESL classes which focus on the development of

listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English, to integrated curricula in which concepts initiated in the L1 are transferred and further developed in English content areas.

Separate ESL-Only Programs

In some school districts the ESL program stands alone rather than being a component of a bilingual program. Separate ESL-only programs are also organized in a variety of ways, depending on number of LEP students, their language backgrounds, their grade levels, and the availability of specialist teachers. Some of the options reported in the literature are: tutoring by itinerant teachers, cluster schools or language centers, sheltered or alternative content classes, ESL classes at the home school, and High Intensity Language Training or HILT (Virginia State Department of Education, 1981; Montgomery County Public Schools, 1980; San Francisco Unified School District, 1984).

Tutoring is the option generally chosen by school districts with small numbers of LEP students. Examples of this type of program can be found in Marshalltown, Iowa and in Muscogee County, Georgia, where tutoring services for LEP students are provided by itinerant teachers who go from school to school to provide ESL instruction to individuals or to small groups of students (Thompson, 1980).

School districts having larger numbers of LEP students but without sufficient concentrations at any one school may opt for a cluster school or language center approach. This type of organizational patterns calls for a school designated as an intensive English language center. Students are

bused to it from surrounding schools for part of the school day, or they attend this school exclusively during their first year of school in the U.S. In this way, specialist teachers and resources can be concentrated in a single location. Boulder, Colorado has a Center for Non-English-Speaking Students (Thompson, 1980), San Francisco has a Newcomer High School (L. Stack, personal communication, 1984), and Seattle has a Newcomer Center (Placer-Barber & Luna, 1981). The learning center model is also used for ESL students in Canada (Wakefield & Yeung, 1978).

The sheltered class (California State Department of Education, 1984a) and alternative content (Montgomery County Public Schools, 1980) models are similar. In these, LEP students with some English proficiency attend content area classes (such as history or science) especially designed to provide them with comprehensible instruction. Features of this type of program are that the language of the content is simplified to make it comprehensible to LEP students. Teachers with training in ESL methodology provide the instruction, and only LEP students attend the class (rather than being mainstreamed and having to compete with proficient English speakers). Some school districts such as Fairfax County, Virginia, and Montgomery County, Maryland, have developed their own materials for such alternative content classes. The sheltered class and alternative content model bear similarities to the immersion model in instructional approach, but students may be of many different L1 backgrounds and the teacher is generally not bilingual (much less multilingual).

Heavily impacted schools with large numbers of LEP students from a variety of L1 backgrounds may choose to set up ESL programs within individual schools. Thus an elementary school might have special ESL classrooms or

resource rooms in which LEP children can spend part of their day receiving intensive instruction in English appropriate to their age and grade level. Having several ESL teachers located at a single school provides additional resources and makes it possible to coordinate the program, building on the expertise and talents represented amongst the teachers. This model has been developed for Fairfax County, Virginia, where ESL teachers teach several classes each day in their area of specialty, such as vocabulary and grammar, composition and content subject reading, functional literacy, listening and speaking, or study skills (Fairfax County Public Schools, 1981). At the elementary school level, the advantage of having ESL teachers as part of the permanent faculty is that they can coordinate with classroom teachers more easily and thus teach ESL students the specific language skills they will need for their all-English classroom.

The High Intensity Language Teaching (HILT) model is widespread at the secondary level. In this pattern, ESL students receive intensive training in all language skills for a significant portion of the school day. In some Virginia school districts, for example, beginning secondary ESL students typically receive three hours of ESL instruction a day during their first year of enrollment, then two hours of ESL instruction during their second year (Virginia State Department of Education, 1981). This model permits scheduling large blocks of time in which ESL students can develop the language skills appropriate to their proficiency level and be mainstreamed on a subject by subject basis. Initial mainstreaming into linguistically undemanding classes such as art, physical education, music, and shop is widened at the second level to include subjects such as math and even science. This organizational pattern also permits bilingual or sheltered classes in linguistically demanding content areas such as U.S. History and State Government.

An example of ths pattern is found in El Paso, where junior and senior high school LEP students move through a carefully planned sequence of courses which begins with intensive blocks of ESL instruction and gradually adds content courses (Apodaca, 1985). A unique feature of this program is the availability of two preliminary courses for each content area that prepare students for mainstreaming. For instance, students take both an ESL course in English for Mathematics and a sheltered mathematics class with appropriate content for their grade level before they are mainstreamed into mathematics classes. The same procedure is followed for science and social studies, and even in the language arts area students make the transition into their first non-ESL English class through a sheltered English class taught by an ESL teacher.

Separate ESL programs are varied and share many features with ESL programs within bilingual education settings. In addition, some intensive ESL programs advocate an instructional approach that integrates language and content, much as immersion programs do.

ESL Through Immersion Programs

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on language immersion programs, but virtually all of it has reported on programs in which language majority children are learning a foreign language through immersion. In a recent publication on studies in immersion education for U.S. educators, for example, the research reported is limited exclusively to French immersion for English speaking Canadian students and Spanish immersion for English speaking U.S. students in California (California

State Department of Education, 1984b). The applicability of the foreign language immersion model to ESL programs in the United States is currently under study.

An early English immersion program for Spanish speaking kindergarten children in McAllen, Texas was described by Baker and deKanter (1981) as a model for "structured immersion," defined as a program in which instruction in all subjects is provided in English that is geared to the proficiency level of the students, by a teacher bilingual in English and the home language of the students. This original definition did not provide for any instruction in the first language; although children were allowed to address the teacher in their first language, the teacher's responses were to be in English only.

More recently, a national longitudinal study to describe and evaluate the effectiveness of immersion programs for language minority children has been initiated. Immersion programs that have been identified for this study include several sites in Texas, California, and Florida (D. Ramirez (project director), personal communication, 1984). The results of this study will provide comprehensive descriptions and information on effectiveness of the immersion model for language minority students in the U.S., but from the initial description, it is apparent that this organizational pattern is suitable only for schools in which all students share not only the same L1 but are also at about the same level of English proficiency. Ideally, it is a program which begins in kindergarten and continues through the elementary grades with no influx of new students of limited English proficiency once the immersion cohort has progressed beyond the kindergarten or first grade level.

Although in its original definition the U.S. (though not the Canadian) immersion model does not use the L1 for instruction, this is not the case in the new immersion programs getting underway. The original McAllen kindergarten program, for instance, had one hour a day of instruction in Spanish (E. Hughes (program director), personal communication, 1983), a pilot program in Miami has one hour a day of Spanish (D. Ramirez, personal communication, 1984), and a pilot bilingual immersion program in El Paso provides cognitive development instruction in Spanish (El Paso Independent School District, 1984).

Hernandez-Chavez (1984) describes some of the critical differences between immersion language education for English speakers, which he terms enrichment immersion programs, and those for language minority children, which he terms displacement immersion programs. In the first, the child is enriched through a bilingual program in which early emphasis on the L2 gradually lessens until instruction is balanced between the L1 and the L2. The goal of such an enrichment program is to promote bilingualism. Displacement immersion programs, on the other hand, may start out by using some of the L1, but the ultimate goal is to replace it with the L2. In this they share many features of transitional bilingual education programs, but the emphasis is on intensive, content-based L2 instruction from the beginning.

Current immersion ESL models are located in states where the language minority population for the most part shares the same L1. In areas, especially urban areas, which have multilingual L1 backgrounds, the classical description of immersion as an organizational pattern begins to

change. Met (1984), for instance, equates immersion with an instructional approach which emphasizes content-based instruction, and this can be implemented in situations where multilingual L1 backgrounds are present. Saville-Troike (personal communication, 1984) also advocates a content-based approach in multilingual, multi-proficiency level classrooms, but does not identify this essentially instructional approach with the organizational pattern of immersion.

Hernandez-Chavez (1984) specifically describes some of the variations of the immersion model in the United States. For instance, he recommends the immersion model for secondary level students who have benefitted from strong L1 instruction. He also recognizes the practicality of immersion in ethnically mixed situations in which, for practical purposes, bilingual education is not feasible. An interesting variation is the Title VII Demonstration Project in San Diego, California (San Diego Unified School District, 1982). In this program, an integrated approach to foreign language education and bilingual education is being implemented. English speaking students undergo an immersion experience in Spanish with Spanish dominant classmates who are acquiring subject matter in their L1. Spanish dominant students have the opportunity to develop their academic skills in their L1 first, and then move progressively into instruction in English. In this model, peer role models and cooperative learning opportunities develop an interdependence between the two language groups.

Elements of bilingual education are also apparent in the new pilot immersion program in El Paso, Texas (El Paso Independent School District, 1984). Although most instructional time is devoted to English, an important part of the curriculum is the development of thinking skills in the L1. An interesting sidelight on this new program is the information

that at least one fourth grade English immersion teacher is receiving students that have already developed literacy and learning strategy skills in their first language, and so the new immersion experience in (mostly) English becomes an exercise in how to transfer L1 concepts and skills to the L2. The teacher is concentrating on the development of such transfer skills this year, in the conviction that by the fifth grade, students will be able to operate successfully in English content subjects (E. Amato, personal communication, 1984).

One conclusion to be drawn from the rich variety of organizational patterns within different types of programs and the fact that programs labelled "bilingual," "ESL," or "immersion" in fact share many of the same features, in that comparison of program models is exceedingly complex. Even to identify the type of program to be compared is problematical, for the same name is often given to programs whose characteristic features are significantly different.

Classroom Organization Patterns

Although this chapter has focused on organizational patterns at the programmatic level, issues of classroom management and organization also appeared in the literature reviewed.

Choices in ESL classroom organization are influenced by factors such as the instructional approach used, student language proficiency levels, and the presence or absence of fluent English speakers in the class. Thus, an audiolingual class tends to be completely teacher-directed; the teacher provides the language model and the students repeat the pattern, often in unison.

Communicative language teaching, on the other hand, favors extensive small group work in which students work on task centered activities and have ample opportunity to talk with each other; during such activities the teacher acts as resource and facilitator, rather than class director. When different levels of language proficiency are present in a single class, teachers can group students by proficiency level and can also provide individualized instruction when needed.

But grouping by proficiency may not be the best way of organizing an ESL classroom for all learning activities. Communication activities, for example, may be more effective when less proficient students are grouped with more proficient ones who can take the lead in directing the activity and in serving as language models. More fluent English speakers can be used as a resource in peer tutoring, which becomes a virtual necessity in a content-based approach in classrooms where students are grouped by grade level rather than English proficiency level (Saville-Troike, personal communication, 1984). Peer tutoring has been found to be a cost-effective intervention in the improvement of math and reading achievement of English speaking elementary children (Levin, Glass, & Meister, 1984), and its use with LEP children can be equally effective.

Helgesen (1983) believes in an eclectic approach to ESL class organization, and recommends a variety of grouping strategies for different class activities. Small group activities and pair (or, in his term, duet) work are seen as especially advantageous in developing speaking and listening skills, whereas solo activity is the recommended grouping for reading and writing. As a subset of solo activity, he describes solo-automated

activity, in which an individual interacts with audio or video tapes (and presumably computer assisted instruction), and recommends this grouping method for listening and writing activities.

Grouping for instruction requires certain classroom management techniques on the part of the teacher. Elementary school teachers tend to have more training in grouping strategies than secondary teachers, and may therefore find it easier to manage multiple groups in the ESL classroom. Teachers also need to develop cultural sensitivity to student characteristics in assigning individuals to group activities, for not all students may feel comfortable with the composition of the group or even with the notion of a class activity that is not 'teacher-directed.

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ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS: INTERVIEW RESULTS

As can be seen in Table 3, school districts and BEMSCs reported that bilingual education was largely supported, followed by a preference for ESL education. The BEMSCs were also asked about provisions for ESL in-service training to which they responded that Natural Language Approach, ESL through content, and adapting materials for ESL were the areas preferred for ESL in-service. The BEMSCs also identified the existence of outstanding ESL programs in their regions.

School districts were asked about the time allotted for ESL instruction, entry/exit procedures for bilingual or ESL programs, and the type of program organization that they had for LEP students. Five of the eight school districts responded that the time allotted varies from 2 to 3 years. Three districts provide ESL daily as long as necessary. For entry procedures, oral proficiency testing in English only was preferred, while oral proficiency testing combined with tests of reading or other tests were preferred for exit. The type of program organization for LEP students cited by school districts were pull-out ESL only, and various programs such as ESL, bilingual, pull-out, and immersion.

Table 3

ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS

Question	Source	Response Categories	Number
Type of program organization for LEP	School Districts (n=8)	Placed with bilingual teacher	1
		Pull-out ESL only	2
		Various ESL only: self-contained pull-out, centers, etc.	1
		Various: ESL, bilingual, pull-out, immersion, etc.	2
		No response	2
Provision of ESL in-service training	BEMSCs (n=8)	Language Acquisition Theories	2
		ESL Teaching Methodologies:	
		o Natural Language Approach	4
		o ESL through content	4
		o TPR	2
		o Story telling	1
		Developing Skill Areas:	
		o Reading	2
		o Writing	1
		o Speaking	1
		Adapting Materials for ESL	4
		Introduction to ESL	3
		Teacher Sensitivity	1
		Other	6
Time allotment for ESL instruction	School Districts (n=8)	ESL daily as long as necessary	3
		Varies: 2-3 years	5
		District specifies maximum	1
		No response	2
Existence of outstanding ESL programs in area	BEMSCs (n=8)	No	1
		Yes, 1-2 programs	2
		Yes, 3 or more programs	3
		No response	2
Entry/exit procedures for bilingual or ESL programs	School Districts (n=8)	Entry	
		Oral proficiency testing in English only	3
		Evaluated in L1 in content areas	1
		Parental requests	1
		L1 dominance	1
		No response	3

Question	Source	Response Categories	Number
		Exit	
		Oral proficiency testing combined with tests of reading or other	3
		CAT test w/recommendations	1
		No response	4

Question	Response Categories	RESPONDENTS: School Districts (n=8)	RESPONDENTS: BEMSCs (n=8)
Philosophy regarding bilingual education vs. ESL or mainstreaming of LEP students	Little or no support for bilingual education	1	3
	Bilingual education supported	5	3
	Preference for ESL	3	3
	Choice of bilingual education vs. ESL dependent on concentration of LEPs	0	1
	Mainstreaming supported	1	2
	Against mainstreaming	0	2

IV. ESL INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

A variety of instructional materials are available for ESL, and new publications appear regularly. Commercial publishers have traditionally developed materials aimed at the overseas English as a foreign language (EFL) adult student. A few materials have been developed for the child studying EFL in other countries, but the concentration has been on the older student. With increasing numbers of foreign students studying at intensive English centers attached to many U.S. universities, ESL books aimed at the foreign university student began to appear. Then, with the flow of refugees and immigrants to the U.S., ESL textbooks to develop survival skills in English began to be developed for adult education courses. Until recently, the needs of the school age LEP population in the U.S. was largely ignored by commercial publishers. ESL students in U.S. schools had to use textbooks that were planned for use in other countries and that tended to emphasize oral language skills, generally presented in audiolingual exercises.

More recently, since about 1978, commercial publishers have begun to consider the needs of LEP students in U.S. public schools, resulting in increased publication of materials specifically designed for these students. The newer instructional materials include: basal series at the elementary, secondary, and adult levels; supplementary materials to develop areas such as reading, writing, listening, communication, study skills, survival skills, pronunciation, grammar; teachers' guides describing complete ESL courses; and computer software which ranges from supplementary single skill lessons to fully developed ESL courses.

This review focuses on the more recent ESL instructional materials, in particular those developed to meet the needs of U.S. LEP students at the elementary and secondary levels. Some of these materials have been published within the last year, are not yet widely known, and have not yet gone through the state or local adoption process.

Space limitations preclude the inclusion of the complete range of recent ESL instructional materials, and so certain selection criteria have been applied. As mentioned above, only recently published instructional materials are included, and "recent" refers to the period since 1979. Because the multitude of supplementary books published recently made their inclusion impossible for reasons of space, this review is limited to ESL series of two books or more, books for ESL teachers (resources, curricula, lesson plans), and occasional materials which address underserved populations or approaches.

Through interviews and other direct sources, references were obtained to some locally developed ESL materials. These proved difficult to acquire in most cases, however, and so could not be included in this review. Another difficulty encountered was in reviewing ESL computer software. Software publishers do not normally provide review copies of programs, so that information on CAI has had to rely on published annotated bibliographies of software.

This chapter first describes recent ESL series developed for elementary school LEP children, then those published for high school (and sometimes adult) level, and finally, teacher's guidebooks for ESL courses at various levels.

Instructional Materials for the Elementary School

The elementary school ESL series reviewed present the four language skills in an audiolingual sequence: listening and speaking first, then after a delay which can last a whole school year, reading and finally writing. This is a reasonable sequence for ESL programs that begin at the kindergarten level. Typically, elementary series consist of four to six student books, teachers' guides, workbooks, audiotape cassettes, and, in some cases, posters or picture cards.

All of the series reviewed contain audiolingual exercises, but the degree to which they are emphasized varies. Series in which the content is organized around grammatical structures tend to have more exercises and drills of the audiolingual type. Learning English as a Second Language (Firkel et al., 1979), for instance, has a strong structural orientation and a definite commitment to the idea of habit formation. American Start with English (Howe, 1983) emphasizes structures and vocabulary, with a heavy emphasis on reading and writing, and is apparently intended for large classes with few opportunities for games or action centered activities. I Like English (Gay & Sintetos, 1981) is also a grammatically structured series, and is audiolingual in its approach. Steps to English (Kernan, 1983) is also organized by grammatical structures, presents audiolingual exercises, emphasizes reading and writing at the upper levels, and in addition provides a variety of pictures and photographs that can be used to elicit communication.

A combination of approaches and content organization is found in some of the elementary series reviewed. Reach Out (Donnelly, 1982), while basically audiolingual in approach, is organized around language functions at the lower levels. Reading and writing are emphasized at the upper levels of this series, and higher level reading selections are content oriented, covering topics on science, math, history, and geography. Yes! English for Children (Mellgren & Walker, 1983) combines a functional with a grammatical organization. Audiolingual activities are supplemented with communicative activities, and the teacher's guide provides several suggestions for getting children to communicate. The organization of New Routes to English (Sampson, 1980), which is designed for upper elementary and secondary levels, is partially functional and partially grammatical, and the teacher's guide provides information about errors to expect and when to correct them.

Big Bird's Yellow Book (Zion, 1984) is the first of a new six book series for elementary ESL which is based in large part on Cummins' (1980) distinction between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). Instructional approaches recommended by this series include audiolingual and Total Physical Response (TPR); content area skills are added to the four language skills.

In addition to textbook series, three kits used for elementary ESL instruction were reviewed. Kits generally consist of a detailed teacher's guide, test books for students, a student profile or achievement tracking chart, and supplementary materials which can include picture cards, concrete objects to manipulate, puppets, and student workbooks. Kits are

particularly helpful in providing suggestions and sequence for developing oral language skills.

IDEA Oral Language Program Kits (Ballard & Tighe, 1980) can be used to develop listening and speaking skills at both elementary and secondary levels. Both grammatical structures and language functions are addressed in these kits, and instructional approaches include audiolingual exercises, cognitive activities, Natural Approach, TPR, and oral communicative activities.

Peabody Language Development Kits--Revised (Dunn, 1981) are designed to develop the oral language skills of primary grade children. These kits were originally intended for use with native English speaking children, but they are used extensively in ESL as well.

Rainbow Collection: A Natural Approach to Teaching English as a Second Language (Marino et al., 1984) is, as the title implies, a kit that implements the Natural Approach, based on Krashen's (see Gingras, 1978) Input Hypothesis. The activities included are mainly communicative in nature, and deal with topics relevant to the social and developmental needs of children. Each activity is color coded to the stage of language acquisition for which it is appropriate - pre-production, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency, and expanding activities. A few content area topics are also included.

Secondary Level ESL Series

Secondary ESL series generally include four to six levels of student books, teachers' guides for each, workbooks, and audiotape cassettes. Some series

also have posters, picture cards, flash cards, tests, and in one case, a management checklist system.

As with elementary ESL series, the instructional materials reviewed for older students also tend to include combinations of approaches, and audiolingual exercises can be found side by side with communicative ones. All four language skills tend to be presented at once, however, unlike traditional audiolingual texts which presented only listening and speaking exercises for a considerable length of time. Language functions are presented as well as grammatical structures, and some content-based activities are present in most current series. The series differ in the relative weight and emphasis given to each component and type of organization.

Several of the series reviewed which initially had been identified as suitable for the secondary level seemed, upon examination, to be designed primarily for adult students. They could be used with high school students, but the content and topics presented do not relate specifically to the secondary level curriculum. English Alfa (Houghton Mifflin, 1981), for example, has an emphasis on literary reading selections and preparation for standardized ESL tests. Bridges to English (Woodford & Kernan, 1981) has a heavily structural and audiolingual orientation, and states that it has been designed for adults. World English (Jovanovich & Morris, 1982), which is organized by both grammatical structures and language functions, seems to be designed for adults because the characters and story lines feature adults in various occupations. English for a Changing World (Banks et al., 1984), which is organized primarily by language functions and provides some communicative exercises, also seems more suitable for adults

because of its illustrations and exercises. Milk and Honey: An ESL Series for Adults (Lanzano & Bodman, 1981) is, as the title indicates, designed for adult students, but might also have some usefulness at the high school level because of its emphasis on communicative language teaching.

A number of series are designated as suitable for either adults or secondary students. An example is Everyday English (Krulik & Zaffran, 1980), which is mainly audiolingual (though somewhat functional) in approach, and has a heavy emphasis on reading and writing. Pathways to English (Allen & Voeller, 1984) is organized by grammatical structures and language functions and provides some communicative activities. New Horizons in English (Mellgren & Walker, 1980) is organized by functions, notions, and grammatical structures. This is the second edition of this series, and revisions have incorporated feedback from students and teachers using the first edition. This type of field-based revision process is also reflected in New InterCom (Yorkey et al., 1984), which differs considerably from the first edition (English for International Communication, 1978) and has added a functional language organization to the original thematic and structural one.

Three recent ESL series for secondary and adult students include content-based topics and activities within a language development framework. In fact, the type of content included makes these series particularly appropriate for the secondary level. Odyssey (Kimbrough et al., 1984) alternates language topics with science and social studies topics as vehicles for presenting language structures. English Across the Curriculum (Maggs, 1983) covers the vocabulary needed for content area subjects and basic skills related to academic areas. Skill Sharpeners for

ESL Secondary Students (De Filippo et al., 1984) provides a variety of exercises designed to develop English study skills needed for different content area subjects.

Books for ESL Teachers

Books for ESL teachers included in this review are those containing direct reference to specific lessons, activities, or plans. Methodology textbooks used for teacher training were not included, though some resource books did contain methodological comments in the introductory pages. Some of the books reviewed in this section were produced at the local or state level, which might limit their availability in some cases. Because of the difficulty in obtaining locally produced materials which have not been commerically published, the selection acquired for this study is not comprehensive.

Resource books for ESL teachers typically contain information on teaching LEP students, sources of information on curricula and materials, descriptions of program organization, information on tests and assessment, bibliographies, reprints of articles, and sample ESL activities. Examples of this type of resource book are ESL Information Packet (National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1983) and ESL Activities Sourcebook (Chicago Board of Education, 1979).

Information about the second language learning process and its application to teaching ESL is contained in resource books such as Teaching the Spanish-Speaking Child: A Practical Guide (Crandall et al., 1981). Three related resource books intended for use as training materials for

mainstream teachers of LEP students have recently been developed: A Classroom Teacher's Handbook for Building English Proficiency; A Trainer's Guide to Building English Proficiency; and A Resource Book for Building English Proficiency (Guillen, 1985).

Curriculum guides vary in the type of components included. Some provide information about instructional approaches and organizational patterns, and these are discussed in the relevant chapters. Some curriculum guides also provide sample ESL lessons or descriptions of units, such as Lau Curriculum Guide for Teaching English as a Second Language to Italian Speaking Students (Chicago Board of Education, 1978).

Other ESL books for teachers provide detailed lesson plans for teaching a sequence of ESL lessons. In Follow the Leader: English for Speakers of Other Languages (Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1982), lessons are organized around a monthly theme and include some content areas and suggestions for cross-cultural activities in grades K-12. Also spanning all grade levels is English as a Second Language Activities Packet (Vendrell, 1982), which focuses on the development of oral skills through audiolingual techniques. Survival skills for the secondary level are addressed in the lessons described in Teacher's Handbook for English for Living: A Set of Materials Designed to Teach Coping Skills and Language Skills to Adolescents for Whom English is a Second Language (Wellman et al., 1979).

Three of the teacher's books reviewed specifically focused on recent methodologies in their description of ESL lessons. ESL Operations: Techniques for Learning While Doing (Nelson & Winters, 1980) develops

listening, speaking, and vocabulary skills of secondary and adult students through commands based on the total physical response (TPR) approach. Teaching English Through Action (Segal, 1981) also uses TPR in detailed lesson plans to develop listening, speaking, and vocabulary skills for both elementary and secondary students. Open the Lights (Carruthers, 1982) is a detailed teacher's guide for activities designed to develop all four language skills by relating them to both the cognitive and communicative needs of young children in grades K-2.

In conclusion, there is substantial variety in current ESL instructional materials. An emerging trend in the most recently published materials seems to be in the direction of organization by language functions, inclusion of communicative activities, and development of content-based lessons.

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INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: INTERVIEW RESULTS

Interviews with representatives from BEMSCs and local school districts elicited information about instructional materials in current use. Many of the materials cited in the interviews were published prior to the 1978 cut off date set for inclusion in the Review of Current Literature on English as a Second Language (Chamot & Stewner-Manzanares, 1984). This was the case for Big E (Garcia & Gonzales-Mena, 1976), CORE English (Slager & Wolk, 1971), and English Around the World (1970). Conversely, recently ESL textbooks such as Reach Out (Donnelly, 1982), Open the Lights (Carruthers, 1982), Skill Sharpeners for ESL Secondary Students (DeFilippo, et al., 1984), English Across the Curriculum (Maggs, 1983), Rainbow Collection (Marino et al., 1984), New InterCom Yorkey et al., 1984), and Big Bird's Yellow Book (Zion, 1984) were not mentioned, perhaps because they were not yet known to the persons interviewed. Note that while some texts were cited as being currently used, they were not always recommended for use by the school district or the BEMSC interviewed. Some texts which were recommended such as English Alfa (Houghton Mifflin, 1981) were not cited as being used. Of those school districts asked if there were locally developed texts in use, the majority responded that there were.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Name of Text	RESPONDENTS: School Districts (n=8)	Recommended?	BEMSCs (n=8)
Elementary			
Big E	1	x	0
CORE English	1		0
English Around the World	3	x	1
IDEA Kits	3	x	0
I Like English	1	x	1
Steps to English	0		2
Yes! English for Children	2		2
Secondary			
English Alfa	0	x	0
English for a Changing World	4		0
Live Action English (TPR)	1	x	1
New Horizons in English	2	x	1
Others	8		4
No Response	2		4
Locally Developed Texts?			
Yes	5	NOT APPLICABLE	
No	1		
Don't Know	0		
No Response	2		

V. LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORIES

This chapter covers language learning theories that underlie the pedagogical approaches described in the first chapter. The criteria for including a given theory were (1) that the theory supported one or more of the instructional approach(es), and (2) that the theory be current. While criterion (2) was relatively easy to fulfill, criterion (1) was not. We found that many current theories were only indirectly related to instructional approaches. However, we have included them to provide the reader with a full description of the range of issues currently being addressed by theorists. Where appropriate, we have indicated when a particular theory or category of theories applies to instructional approaches.

Other language learning aspects identified in this section were developmental factors, cognitive styles, ethnolinguistic background, culture, socioeconomic status, and sociolinguistic factors. Where applicable, we have also included brief descriptions of experimental studies that support a given theory.

Language learning theories can be classified into three categories: biological/neurological, cognitive, and socio-affective. The theories as they were categorized appear below:

Biological/Neurological

Cognitive
- Developmental
- Cognitive Styles and the Metaset
- Interdependence
- Student Functional Proficiency

Creative Construction
Intelligence
Interlanguage
Transfer
Information Processing

Socio-affective
Affective
Socio-cultural
Acculturation
Optimal Distance Model
Code-switching
Discourse Analysis
Communicative Competence

Monitor Model

Fillmore and Swain's Interactionist Model

The Monitor Model and Fillmore and Swain's Interactionist Model were not categorized as both models draw on all three categories. Of all the models, these two addressed the greatest number of student characteristics and only the Fillmore and Swain model applied to children as well as adults learning a second language.

While other models address more than one characteristic of the learner and the language learning situation, most have a major focus in either biological/neurological factors, cognitive factors, or socio-affective factors. For example, Schumann's theory of acculturation recognizes that there are developmental and cognitive factors, but concentrates on socio-affective factors to explain variable second language proficiency of adults living in the target culture. Few models attempt to explain more than one or two aspects of language learning. As a result, few theories are complete theories of language learning. Most theories evolve out of a single issue such as age, cognitive deficit, or differential academic achievement.

The Monitor Model and Fillmore and Swain's Interactionist Model are two theories that attempt to integrate biological/neurological, cognitive, linguistic, and socio-affective aspects of language learning. Even so, the Monitor Model applies only to adults learning a second or foreign language.

Theories of language have also been included, but only as background to the language learning theories that are based on them. For example, Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis have been discussed under "Interlanguage." Discourse Analysis has been provided as background for the "Communicative Competence" theory.

In addition to the literature search, interviews with theorists were conducted in order to obtain the latest information regarding changes in the theory or experimental evidence supporting the theory. Where appropriate, the latest article on the theory was included in the annotated bibliography.

The table below displays pedagogical approaches and theories that underlie them. In some cases, the language learning theories behind a given approach were explicitly stated by the proponent(s) of the approach. In other cases, no particular theory was explicitly mentioned, but the description of the approach clearly suggested a theory. In two cases, the Language Experience Approach and the New Concurrent Approach, some of the language learning theories upon which the approaches are based are not clear. In these cases, a theory was assigned based on the description of the approach and other background information related to the approach.

These cases are indicated by parentheses around the theory in question. It is clear that proponents of pedagogical approaches do not always explicitly identify the underlying language learning theories.

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES AND UNDERLYING THEORIES

Audiolingual

- Behaviorism
- Transfer

Silent Way

- Cognitive

CLL

- Affective
- Communicative Competence

Suggestopedia

- Affective

LEA

- (Cognitive)
- (Communicative Competence)

New Concurrent

- Code switching
- (Interdependence)
- Transfer

TPR

- Biological/Neurological
- Affective
- Communicative Competence

Notional/Functional

- Pragmatics
- Sociocultural

Communicative (CLT)

- Communicative Competence
- Sociolinguistic/Discourse Analysis
- Monitor Model

Strategic Interaction

- Sociolinguistic/Discourse Analysis
- Communicative Competence
- Affective

Natural Approach

- Monitor Model
- Communicative Competence
- Affective

Cognitive

- Cognitive

Content-based

- Cognitive
- Communicative Competence
- Affective

BIOLOGICAL/NEUROLOGICAL THEORY

Studies in cerebral organization bring several issues to the forefront that are important to language learning. One issue is the optimal age for learning a second language and the second is the effect that language learning under different circumstances has on the neurological organization of the brain.

The Age Issue. The age issue stems from the observation that children seem to learn a second language better than adults. It was thought at one time that a second language could not be learned after puberty (Lenneberg, 1967). Recent research has shed light on Lenneberg's critical age hypothesis by showing that brain lateralization or the dominance of one cerebral hemisphere over another begins before birth and may be complete by age five (Krashen, 1981). Krashen reports that there is evidence that brain lateralization follows a developmental course whereby the degree of lateralization increases until age five and certain aspects of language are not entirely assigned to the left hemisphere until puberty. This means that a learner's ability or inability to acquire a second language at certain ages is not necessarily tied to lateralization.

Seliger (1978), also citing studies in brain lateralization, proposes a "multiple critical periods" hypothesis. This theory holds that the ability to acquire language is determined by cerebral plasticity or the brain's capacity to reassign different areas to carry out certain tasks. Since differential recovery from aphasia or language impairment is found for patients of different ages, Seliger reasons that learning capabilities are not lost at once and that there are diverse critical periods when different aspects of language are more easily learned.

While the biological/neurological literature shows that the brain is different at different ages, it does not show definitively that it is brain lateralization that constrains language learning beyond puberty. Krashen (1981) suggests that cognitive and affective factors may play more of a role than lateralization in the adolescent's or adult's ability to learn a second language.

Language Learning and Cerebral Organization. The question of lateralization is perhaps more germane when looking at differences in cerebral organization of different learners. Galloway (1981) looked at studies of laterality and different aspects of second language learning. She concluded that the manner, modality, and environment of language learning influences hemispherical dominance. For example, formal classroom training is accompanied by greater involvement of the left hemisphere while learning in informal environments engages both hemispheres. Learning in the modes of reading and writing contributes to left hemispherical dominance. The language environment also contributes to laterality: the bilingual has little hemispherical dominance when compared to the monolingual. Furthermore, aspects of the language learner also influence laterality. Socio-ethnic factors may influence the engagement of one hemisphere over the other. Galloway (1981) reports that some ethnic groups such as the Navajos engage the right brain in interactions in both their native language and the second language, while native English speakers engage the left hemisphere in both English and second language interactions. However, differences in socio-economic status and literacy may account for these differences in hemispherical use. Cognitive styles of deductive and inductive reasoning influence laterality as well. Adults

may preferentially adopt right or left hemispherical processing. Finally, age itself influences the use of one hemisphere over the other. Balanced bilinguals may develop different hemispheric processing strategies as a result of exposure to the second language before six years of age (Galloway, 1981).

An additional revelation from studies of laterality is that automatic speech such as routines and formulas may be represented in both sides of the brain while propositional speech found in connected discourse is confined largely to one hemisphere (Krashen, 1981). Routines and formulas such as greetings and leavetakings have been found in the early stages of second language acquisition in highly predictable language environments such as the classroom (Fillmore, 1976). However, the exact role that routines and formulas play in language acquisition is unknown. Krashen (1981) states that they are a part of language learning in that routines may encourage input from native speakers that the learner can use for acquisition, but they are not a large part of language learning. The use of routines and patterns may fulfill initial social and affective needs more than contribute directly to language acquisition (Fillmore, 1976).

Implications. The implications of a biological/neurological theory of language learning are the following:

1. The manner, modality, and environment in which a second language is learned influences cerebral organization.
2. Ethnic factors, cognitive style, and age also influence hemispheric use.
3. Cerebral organization is different for bilinguals and monolinguals.
4. While age influences cerebral organization, it does not necessarily constrain language learning ability.

5. Routines and formulas are different from propositional speech in the way they are represented in the brain. Therefore, while they may be a part of a language program, they should not be the major focus if propositional speech is the goal.

Pedagogical approaches that draw on biological/neurological theories are those that capitalize on hemispherical differences. The Total Physical Response approach (Asher, 1982), for example, is based on the premise that learning is facilitated if both cerebral hemispheres are involved. Asher gives evidence that more vocabulary is retained for a longer amount of time with this approach.

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COGNITIVE THEORIES

Cognitive theories of language acquisition focus on the cognitive processes and abilities that the learner brings to the language learning task. Studies of second language learning and cognition have concentrated on innate characteristics of cognition, intelligence, developmental stages, cognitive styles, the interaction of cognition and the linguistic environment, and cognitive processes such as transfer.

Developmental Theories. Since language learning constraints after puberty are not correlatable with a degree of brain lateralization, theorists have hypothesized that second language learning after puberty is different from learning before puberty because of cognitive developmental differences. Krashen (1981), for example, argues that with the onset of formal operations (Inhelder & Piaget, 1958) the learner is able to create an abstract theory of language which allows conscious learning to exist. With conscious learning comes an awareness of language patterns and rules which may be used to monitor language production (see Monitor Model, described after the section on Socio-Affective Theories). Krashen feels that formal operations may be partly responsible for the fossilization of progress in the adolescent's and adult's second language acquisition; with formal operations come affective changes where the adolescent is able to separate what he thinks from what others think and feels self-conscious as a result. Krashen hypothesizes that both developmental and affective changes make second language learning quite different from first language learning.

To test the notion that cognitive differences affect second language learning, researchers have looked at the rate at which a second language is learned by children and adults. Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978) found that adults and teenagers learn morphology and syntax at a faster rate than children. Fathman (1975) also found that older children (11-15 years) learned syntax at a faster rate than younger children (6-10 years). Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979) conclude that if time and exposure are held constant (1) adults proceed through the early stages of syntactical and morphological development faster than children, (2) older children acquire faster than younger children, and (3) learners with natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than those beginning second language acquisition as adults.

Developmental theory holds that language learning is qualitatively different at different developmental stages. The studies suggest that cognitive development enhances the rate of second language learning, but does not explain the differences in eventual attainment of proficiency of adults and children.

Cognitive Styles and the Metaset. Differences in cognitive style have been posited as an explanation for different language learning abilities in different settings. For example, differences in the academic achievement of different language background groups have been attributed to differences in cognitive style (Duncan, 1979). De Avila and Duncan (1979), in an attempt to prove that variation in linguistic proficiency and not variation in cognitive abilities accounted for differences in academic achievement,

propose the theory of the metaset. The metaset is based on Piagetian developmental theory and Harlow's theory of learning sets (De Avila & Duncan, 1979). Learning sets are formed when the learner is exposed to diverse learning tasks and is able to abstract elements that are invariable. For example, from learning sets involving diverse red objects, the learner gleans the notion of "redness." De Avila and Duncan argue that the bilingual, rather than having cognitive deficits as previously hypothesized, has more cognitive flexibility than the monolingual. This theory suggests that because bilingualism involves extracting deeper semantic meanings while social and linguistic factors vary, it requires greater mental flexibility than monolingualism. Indeed, neurological research supports the notion that balanced bilinguals have greater cognitive flexibility than monolinguals since both cerebral hemispheres are activated in the bilingual (Galloway, 1981).

Furthermore, De Avila (1984) has shown in numerous experiments that differences in academic achievement are a function of linguistic deficits and not of cognitive style. De Avila and Duncan (1979) report that balanced bilinguals had more consistent gains in an experiment involving an embedded figures test, draw-a-person, and matching familiar figures than did monolingual, limited, and minimal bilingual speakers.

De Avila's (1984) pedagogical approach, Finding Out/Descubrimiento (see Content-Based Approaches), is based on the theory that bilinguals have linguistic, not cognitive deficits and that the cognitive skills that students have should be further strengthened through a program that includes activities of higher order cognitive demand. It is De Avila's belief that most classroom practice focuses on rote learning of facts and

not on complex forms of information processing so that the cognitive advantages of bilingual students are seldom seen or exercised. In an experiment utilizing the Finding Out/Descubrimiento approach in a bilingual program, De Avila (1984) compared 300 students receiving the treatment to 253 students in regular classes and found that proficient bilingual students had the most consistent gains in tests of math applications and concepts. This supports the notion that the proficient bilingual has cognitive advantages over the limited and minimally proficient student.

Differences in cognitive style have also been investigated by Ventriglia (1982) who identified three basic types of language learning styles in second language learning children: beading, braiding, and orchestrating. Far from claiming that one style is superior to another in terms of language acquisition, Ventriglia points out that teachers must take these differences into account when deciding what and how to teach second language learners.

Interdependence. Cummins' (1984) theory of interdependence is based on the observation that some bilingual children, in spite of high conversational proficiency, do not achieve academically. The interdependence theory holds that there are common underlying proficiencies which contribute to academic growth in the first and second languages. More importantly, Cummins believes that academic skills can be more readily transferred and operative in the second language if they have been developed in the first language. Hence, he posits the dependence of the emergence of academic skills in the second language on the skills established in the first language. Cummins (1984) provides evidence for the common underlying proficiency principle from studies relating age of arrival and first language literacy

development to students' second language acquisition, as well as from studies of the relationships of first and second language cognitive/ academic proficiency.

The concern for the transferability of academic skills such as literacy stems from problems encountered in the amount of time given minority students to learn English and their academic achievement. Cummins (1984) reports that most programs allow two years while five to seven years is required to develop verbal-academic skills. It appears that students develop conversational fluency in English in two years but not the verbal-academic skills required for academic achievement. Cummins argues that if the higher order skills required in reading, writing compositions, and conceptualizing subject matter are developed in the first language, that less time is required to transfer these skills to operations in the second language than if these skills had been developed in the second language alone.

Cummins (1984) posits a model of language proficiency to explain this phenomenon. He believes that the type of proficiency required to carry out tasks varies according to the context and the degree of cognitive involvement. For example, a task may be placed along a continuum of cognitively demanding or undemanding and along a continuum of context embedded or context reduced language. An example of a cognitively undemanding task that is context embedded would be a service exchange outside the classroom where there are situational and paralinguistic cues and where the language required would be highly predictable and formulaic. The learner would be able to negotiate meaning actively by getting feedback on comprehensibility and comprehension of the message. The task is

cognitively undemanding because the language used in such an encounter is largely automatized. A cognitively demanding task in a context reduced environment, on the other hand, would be writing an essay where interpretation of the message depends on the knowledge of the language itself (context reduced) and active cognitive involvement is required for an appropriate performance.

The ideas underlying Cummin's model of language proficiency are the following:

1. Cognition is involved in second language learning, particularly in carrying out academic language tasks.

2. There are general cognitive skills of which academic linguistic skills are a subset. The exact nature of these skills is not presently known. Cummins does, however, mention "transferability" of these skills.

3. There is a common proficiency underlying the first and second language which enables learners to retain their cognitive skills while operating in the second language. In other words, once one has learned to read in the first language, general skills of reading do not have to be relearned in the second language, e.g., inferencing and applying schemata to optimize comprehension.

4. Making use of skills developed in the first language can reduce the time required to develop academic linguistic skills in the second language because the student does not have to learn general cognitive skills AND linguistic skills at the same time.

5. There is a disparity between home language which is generally context embedded and school language which is context reduced and cognitively demanding.

6. This disparity may account for reduced academic achievement among language minority students who have not yet developed academic skills in their first language.

Student Functional Proficiency. Recognizing the disparity in tasks required inside and outside the classroom, Tikunoff (1984) proposes a model of Student Functional Proficiency (SFP). To Cummins's (1984) continua of

skills required in and out of academic settings, Tikunoff adds three intersecting circles of interactional, academic, and participative competence. That is, the classroom requires that a student (1) observe classroom rules and social rules of discourse, (2) function at increasingly complex cognitive levels, and (3) be competent in the procedural rules of the class. Little research, however, in identifying the types of skills required across academic tasks has been done.

Intelligence. Some theorists hypothesize that language learning is closely related to intelligence and that a general factor (the "g" factor) underlies all performance. Oller (1979), observing that language ability has always correlated highly with I.Q. measures, hypothesizes that the same skills underlying intelligence also underlie first and second language learning. However, as Hatch (1983) points out, it is unlikely that one factor underlies all intelligence and all language learning since there are cases of language learning in the presence of learning disabilities. Another problem with this view is that I.Q. tests are generally verbally based, making it difficult to separate intelligence and language ability.

Gardner (1978) also sheds light on the role of intelligence in an experiment conducted with 300 high school students learning a foreign language. Measuring types of motivation, language achievement, language aptitude, and anxiety, he found that motivation was the single most consistent variable to differentiate students who do well in foreign language courses. He concludes that aptitude and intelligence are not as important as motivation and attitude in the initial stages of foreign language learning in school.

Creative Construction. Borrowing from Chomsky's (1964) nativist point of view, Burt and Dulay (1975) posit the creative construction hypothesis. Creative construction is a process in which learners reconstruct rules for the speech they hear according to universal innate mechanisms. These mechanisms enable learners to use strategies to organize linguistic input in such a way that the mismatch between what is produced and what is heard is resolved. Without these innate mechanisms, learners could not understand or produce novel sentences. Ventriglia (1982) cites studies in child second language acquisition which show that children first learn linguistic chunks that are later analyzed. The fact that these chunks first appear intact and then as recombined parts with other elements is furnished as evidence of active rule formation. Since this same phenomenon is found in both first and second language production, it suggests that the innate mechanisms which regulate hypothesis and rule formation are the same for both first and second language acquisition.

Further proof comes from studies of the order of acquisition of morphemes. Dulay and Burt (1974) found an invariant order of acquisition of morphemes for children of different language backgrounds who were learning English as a second language. Together with studies of the invariant order of morpheme acquisition in first language production, Dulay and Burt take this as proof of universal mechanisms that underlie all language learning. In other words, second language learning, rather than being dependent on properties of the first language, is a product of innate cognitive mechanisms in this view.

Interlanguage. Tied closely to the notion of underlying cognitive mechanisms is the Interlanguage Hypothesis. Selinker (1972, 1984) proposes that a first or second language learner's production reflects universal

language processing strategies. Based on the fact that learners produce rule governed utterances and systematic errors that are unlike either the first or second language, Selinker hypothesizes that the learner progresses from the first language through a series of temporary diasystems which are restructured as rules are added, dropped, or modified. The learner is seen as an active hypothesis tester approaching target language norms. In contrast to the creative construction hypothesis, this theory holds that the second language learner must determine what the differences between the first language and the second language are and use cognitive mechanisms which are innate to formulate transitional grammars that approximate the grammar of the target language. Selinker has identified some of the processes involved in interlanguage by analyzing learner production. Some of these processes include (1) overgeneralization, (2) language transfer, (3) transfer of training, and (4) second language learning strategies such as simplification of the target language system (Galang, 1979).

The interlanguage hypothesis evolved from earlier notions of how the second language learner progresses from the first to the second language. In a purely linguistic analysis called Contrastive Analysis which contrasted the structures of the first and target language, it was hypothesized that the points where the two languages diverged would be the points that would interfere in the learning of the second language. Since language learning was seen as habit formation, language teaching was seen as concentrating on those points which would impede habit formation. These points then became the focus of the second language curriculum (see Audiolingual Approach). Using Error Analysis, researchers showed that learners' errors did not correspond to those points predicted by Contrastive Analysis. Error

Analysis revealed that the learners errors were systematic, evidence that the learner was operating according to internal rules (Corder, 1981). The Interlanguage Hypothesis in turn proposed that the learner created a series of internal grammars or language systems that successively approximated the target language grammar.

The notion that the learner compares the first language to the second language and uses this knowledge to approximate the target language underlies approaches that view language learning as a process of transfer. The grammar-translation and audiolingual approaches have transfer as an underlying principle. In grammar-translation, linguistic elements could be transferred from one language to the other. In the audiolingual approach, habits formed in the first language could be transferred to the learning of the target language.

Transfer. Approaches that are based on Skinnerian behaviorism also subsume transfer as a major process in language learning (Lado, 1961). For many years transfer was seen as the main cause of interference of the first language in the production of the second language. More recently, however, transfer has been seen in the larger context of language learning. Now that language analysis has been extended to the pragmatic domain, more can be said about what is being transferred (Gass & Selinker, 1983). Phonological and syntactic elements are no longer seen as the only language units that can be transferred. Semantic, pragmatic, and phenomena at the discourse level are also seen as transferable. Transfer as a general cognitive process has also become fertile ground for research (Selinker, 1984; Hakuta & Galambos, 1984). Transfer of general learning strategies

to the learning of a second language, for example, has been studied recently (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo & Kupper, in press). First language reading strategies have also been applied to second language reading with significant results (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983).

Transfer is now thought of as one of the cognitive processes that learners can use at different levels and contexts of language learning. Cummins' Interdependence Theory, for example, is predicated upon transfer of skills from the first language to the second. No current approach, however, has transfer as its main focus.

Information Processing. McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod (1983) propose an information processing approach to second language learning. In this theory, the learner is viewed as an active organizer of incoming information with processing limitations and capabilities. While motivation is considered to be an important element in language learning, the learner's cognitive system is central to processing. Most of the evidence for the complexity of the cognitive system comes from memory research. The learner has been found to store and retrieve information according to the degree to which the information was processed. So that if an item or utterance is stored semantically as opposed to syntactically, it is said to be stored to a "deeper" level resulting in long term retention. In other words, the level of linguistic elements determines the degree of cognitive effort involved. The nature of tasks also determines the degree of cognitive involvement. Controlled and automatic processing calls for high and low cognitive involvement respectively. Automaticity is achieved through high familiarity with new material. For example, performance in a native speaker conversation would be largely automatic while performance

resulting from formal rule learning would be controlled. Task demands on attention also vary from focal to peripheral. The learner may consciously or unconsciously attend to stimuli and organize the information.

Evidence for aspects of the information-processing model comes from studies in language processing and memory (McLaughlin, Rossman, & McLeod, 1983). Automaticity has been studied in lexical decision tasks where the subject is required to decide whether a given word is related to another. Balanced bilinguals have been found to process lexical items more efficiently than dominant bilinguals who are more fluent in one language than another (Favreau, 1981, as reported in McLaughlin, Rossman, & McLeod, 1983). In vocabulary recognition tasks, advanced learners and native speakers have been found to encode semantically or by meaning, while less advanced learners show predominance of acoustic clustering or encoding by sound. This is taken as evidence that orthographic and acoustic properties have been automatized in the advanced learners.

There is also evidence for automaticity at the semantic level. Native speakers have been found to have better recognition of semantic than syntactic changes while nonnative speakers were found to have greater ability to recognize syntactic than semantic changes (Rossman, 1981, as cited in McLaughlin et al., 1983).

The implications of information processing for second language acquisition are that learners actively impose cognitive schemata on incoming data in an effort to organize that data. McLaughlin et al. (1983) propose that the learner uses a top-down approach (or knowledge governed system) which makes use of internal schema as well as a bottom-up approach (or an input

governed system) which processes external input to achieve automaticity. In both cases, cognition is involved and the degree of cognition required is set by the task itself. The different approaches to processing may be important information to have to maximize learning in the classroom.

No pedagogical approach was found to be based on information processing. Cognitive-code and other approaches involving deduction are based on conscious learning and application of rules. It is thought that these approaches answer the learner's need for patterns and rules. Since learners seek and formulate their own rules, these approaches are said to be more efficient by appealing directly to learner's cognitive abilities. Bernhardt (1984) has recently suggested that foreign language reading approaches take into account the information processing model when deciding on the structure and complexity of reading material. In other words, the complexities involved in cognitive processing ought to be taken into account when designing language programs or materials.

Pedagogical approaches based on cognitive theories of language learning include Cognitive Code, Silent Way, Language Experience Approach, and in content-based approaches exemplifid by Finding Out/Descubrimiento. These approaches capitalize on conscious learning. In Cognitive Code, the learner applies rules deductively while in Silent Way, rules are induced and actively used by the student. In the Language Experience Approach, the student draws on previous knowledge. Content-based approaches include tasks that are varied in cognitive difficulty so that students focus on concepts, not language. Implicit learning as discussed in this section is also a part of Suggestopedia and the Natural Approach. The explicit/implicit aspect of learning is also part of the Monitor Model and is discussed under that section.

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SOCIO-AFFECTIVE THEORIES

Socio-affective theories of language learning have emerged as a result of the failure of biological/neurological and cognitive theories to explain individual variation in the learning of a second language. That is, people who are equally intelligent in the same socio/cultural environment differ in their success in learning a second language. There is also another aspect to this question. Krashen (1981) posits affective factors as the cause for differences between child and adult second language acquisition. He hypothesizes that cognitive differences are accompanied by affective changes so that the older child upon reaching the formal operations stage can objectify his own thinking and separate it from that of others. This ability to objectify his own thinking leads to self-consciousness as the older child feels that others are thinking of him and judging him. Krashen (1981) hypothesizes that it is this self-consciousness plus the ability to learn consciously that account for the differences between child and adult language acquisition.

The evidence that affective factors may be critically important elements comes from studies in motivation. Gardner (1978) measured the motivation, integrativeness or willingness to be a part of the target culture, foreign language achievement, language aptitude and anxiety of 300 Canadian foreign language students in grades 9, 10, and 11. He found that motivation was the single most consistent variable to differentiate students who continued language learning and those who dropped out. Gardner and Lambert (1972) also identified two motivation orientations for second language learning--integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. With

integrative motivation the learner wants to meet with and even become like the speakers of the target language. With instrumental motivation, the learner wants to learn the language for utilitarian reasons, such as for the job, and has little interest in the people who speak the language. Gardner and Lambert have shown that learners with integrative motivation generally have greater language proficiency and stay in language programs longer. Schumann (as cited in Gingras, 1978) has suggested that integrative motivation is associated with foreign language learning where it is not necessary that the language be acquired, while instrumental motivation is anti-integrative and has been found among Mexican-Americans in the Southwest. Schumann feels that while the integrative-instrumental distinction is useful, it interacts with social variables in a complex way that is not yet understood.

Ego-permeability and its effect on the ability to pronounce a second language were studied by Guiora (1972). Guiora posits a "language ego" where the learner acquires a sense of the boundaries of his language and these boundaries are permeable in the early stages of development, but fixed later on. By lowering levels of inhibition with alcohol, Guiora and his colleagues found that adult learners' pronunciation could be improved. Guiora hypothesizes that the successful language learner may be an individual who has access to child-like ego states. The child-like ego state is taken into consideration in the pedagogical approach known as Suggestopedia. Lozanov (1979) hypothesizes that infantilization is necessary for learning to take place. The learner must lower his defenses and trust the teacher implicitly.

Affective states are also part of Community Language Learning. Curran (1976) bases his approach on a type of therapy developed in psychiatry. In his view, learners must learn to trust the teacher, other learners, and the teaching context and be responsible for their own learning. Learners guide their own learning by expressing what they want to say in their native language and then are facilitated by the teacher who gives them the same concepts in the target language. In addition, learners are free to talk about what they feel about their learning experience, thereby gaining support of the language learning community and overcoming inhibitions and defensiveness. This approach of all the approaches reviewed makes the most use of principles espoused by affective theories.

Affective theories, therefore, hold that the affective factor is the most important factor in predicting successful language learning. These theories do not include cognitive or biological factors.

Socio-cultural Theories. Closely tied to affective theories are socio-cultural theories. While these theories are not learning theories, they are taken into account to explain variation in language proficiency and school achievement. The socio-cultural factor is included in Schumann's (as cited in Gingras, 1978) Acculturation Hypothesis, for example. In this view, variations in academic achievement can be explained by variations in socioeconomic status and ethnicity rather than by variation in language proficiency.

Many studies have been conducted on the relationship between socioeconomic status (SES) and different aspects of language achievement. So and Chan (1984) for example, found that socioeconomic status and ethnicity had an

impact on the reading scores of both Hispanic and non-Hispanic students, but more on non-Hispanic students. SES, however, did not explain the Hispanic students' scores entirely. Other factors were obviously involved. While socio-cultural factors do not account for the entire act of second language learning, it is clear that they must be taken into consideration when developing a complete theory of language learning.

Acculturation. Schumann (as cited in Gingras, 1978; Schumann, 1984) proposes a model that takes social factors and affective factors together as the major causal variable in second language acquisition. Social variables include: social dominance; integration strategies of assimilation, preservation, and adaptation; enclosure; cohesiveness; similarity to the target culture; attitude toward target culture; and intended length of residence. Affective variables include language shock, culture shock and ego-permeability. Schumann believes that the degree to which a learner acculturates controls the degree to which he acquires the language. In a series of case studies, Schumann (as cited in Gingras, 1978) measured affective and social variables and language proficiency and concluded that the amount of psychological distance was related to language proficiency. However, Schumann (1984) states that the Acculturation Model is untestable. It seems that researchers cannot agree on measures of acculturation.

No approach is directly based on the Acculturation Model. Approaches based on affective, cultural, and social considerations have acculturation as an underlying premise, however. The Acculturation Model, although focusing on [illegible] living in the target culture, is nevertheless an important one in [illegible]nting for variable language proficiency and academic achievement when all other factors are equal.

Optimal Distance Model. Brown (1980) contrasts his Optimal Distance Model to the critical period hypothesis by arguing that there is a critical period for second language acquisition based not on biological factors, but on factors of acculturation, anomie, social distance, and perceived social distance. He adds to Schumann's (as cited in Gingras, 1978) basic Acculturation Model the notion of perceived social distance that is, the distance that the learner feels that he is from the target society. Citing Acton's (1979) study on perceived distance from the (second language) target culture and the (first language) native culture, Brown suggests that perceived social distance be added to explain variation in adult second language proficiency. Acton found that good language learners perceived themselves as neither too close nor too far from the target culture. From this evidence, Brown proposes a four stage acculturation process: (1) euphoria over the new culture, (2) culture shock, (3) partial recovery, and (4) full recovery. Brown hypothesizes that there is a critical sociocultural period and that the optimal time for second language learning is at stage 3 when the learner begins to recover from culture shock. He believes that fossilized deviant language forms found in adult speech are the result of adults' having achieved non-linguistic means of coping in the foreign culture. Brown's most important point is that coping with psychological and linguistic adjustments may overload the human system so that both linguistic and cultural adjustments are impaired.

While this theory is an intriguing one, there is no empirical evidence to support it and no approach based on it. There are special programs, however, that recognize the importance of cultural orientation to facilitate the language learning process. These programs either offer separate cultural counseling or teach the second language through cultural counseling.

Code-switching. Code-switching or using two or more languages during social interaction is a social phenomenon that occurs when two languages come into contact, e.g., Spanish and English in the Southwest. While code-switching is not a language learning theory, it is the main focus of Jacobson's (1981) New Concurrent Approach. The theory underlying this approach is that if learners are exposed to two languages they will learn both languages. Sociolinguists who have studied code-switching have concluded that it is not random, but governed by situational, linguistic, developmental and social factors. Gonzalez and Maez (1980) cite studies that show that:

1. code-switching reflects the language situation of the home,
2. regional social conditions trigger it,
3. ability in both languages may be a prerequisite,
4. situational code-switching appears first, followed by stylistic code-switching.

Gonzalez and Maez (1980) propose a four stage model of code-switching that represents a learner going from a strong language and one weak language to a stage where the formerly strong language is now the weaker and the formerly weak language the stronger. This is apparently the situation in Southwestern United States where many children begin school with strong Spanish and weak English. To account for this they suggest that there are two types of code-switching: intersentential and intrasentential. They argue that intrasentential code-switching is associated with diminishing ability to communicate in one language while intersentential code-switching reflects competency in both languages. In a study conducted by Garcia, Gonzales, Maez and Ibanez (1979) on four-, five-, and six-year-old Spanish-speaking children from different ethnic groups, the mean length of

utterance (MLU), which is a measure of linguistic development, increased for English and decreased for Spanish. The authors consider this to be evidence that regressive code-switching reflects diminishing proficiency in one of the languages. They therefore recommend that code-switching, if used as a teaching device, be intersentential and not intrasentential. Their point is that intersentential code-switching reinforces proficiency in both languages since diminishing proficiency was found to accompany intrasentential code-switching. They reason that intersentential code-switching provides a more complete model of the language.

Discourse Analysis. Discourse analysis is an analysis of language parts at the level above sound, word order, meaning, and speech acts. In other words, it is an analysis at the level beyond the sentence. This includes the study of human interaction which has stirred much interest recently. While discourse analysis is not a language learning theory, it is based on the idea that the nature of communication is largely social and that language learning is the process of internalizing a social code (Hymes, 1972).

Recent studies have used discourse analysis to study classroom interaction. Three aspects of classroom discourse have been studied: the linguistic environment, patterns of participation and error treatment. In the linguistic environment the nature of the input available to learners has been observed and analyzed. Gaies (1977), for example, found that the ESL teacher's classroom speech was syntactically less complex and was finely tuned to the proficiency of the students. Fillmore (1982) looked at participation in the elementary bilingual classroom and found that students have to comprehend exchanges of information and the language of behavior

regulation. Language that students have to produce includes initiation of informative sequences and requests, and responses to teacher-initiated elicitation sequences. Long and Sato (1983) found that display questions outnumber referential questions four to one in the classroom while referential questions are predominant outside the classroom. Schinke (1981) found that mainstreamed limited English proficient students at the high school level have fewer interactions with the teacher than non-LEP students. Neves (1983) reports that Spanish monolinguals have fewer interactions in small group classroom activities than fluent bilinguals do, while language limited students have the fewest number of interactions. Error treatment has been studied by Chaudron (1977) who found that error treatment is complex, inconsistent and ambiguous. Error treatment is highly variable across teachers so that conclusions are difficult to draw from these studies.

We have included this brief introduction to studies that have used discourse analysis to discover what input learners are receiving and the effects of that input on their acquisition of a second language, because some current approaches draw on this information as a guide to a language syllabus (see Communicative Approaches). The notional/functional syllabus, for example, looks to discourse analysis to explain how language is organized and used in interactions and in lengthy discourse. Current materials are also based on the findings from discourse analysis (Kramsch, 1981). While discourse analysis does not apply directly to current pedagogical approaches, there are a number of important implications for both language learning theory and teaching approaches:

1. Language studied in theory is quite different from natural language.

2. Natural language is complex, rule governed, and highly social.

3. The language of the classroom is different from the language outside the classroom.

4. How learners use input to be able to produce a second language is not known.

5. The role of learner output is not known.

Krashen (1981) observes that people do learn in natural language settings and do become quite fluent. Exactly how they do this, in spite of variation in social, psychological, and cognitive factors, is the object of recent and future research. The real contribution of discourse analysis, however, is a description of real language in natural settings. This is a major element in theories of communicative competence or what it is that the learner must know to be able to communicate in a natural language setting.

Communicative Competence. Hymes (1972) proposed that the underlying knowledge that the language learner has must include the notion of sociocultural appropriateness. Sociocultural knowledge together with knowledge of grammar makes up what Hymes terms communicative competence. In this view, the learner acquires not only grammatical structures and meanings, but also knowledge of when and how to use language to accomplish tasks. The learner must, for example, know how to elicit information, how to express time and space, and how to socialize. He must also know the rules of use of functions, e.g., requesting, and notions, e.g., expressing time. These include learning complex social rules such as when it is appropriate to speak, how to take leave, how to hold the floor, how to signal a topic change, how to tell a story, and how to structure lengthy discourse without losing listeners.

Canale and Swain (1980) add knowledge of communication strategies and discourse to the notion of communicative competence and grammatical competence. They argue that real communication is a form of social action, involves a high degree of unpredictability, has a purpose, takes place in sociocultural contexts which govern language use, and has successful or unsuccessful outcomes. Because communication is highly unpredictable, the learner must have communication strategies that enable him to negotiate meaning, to handle breakdowns in communication, and to enhance communication. Since communication is highly social, the learner must also know the rules of discourse such as holding the floor, taking a turn, changing the topic, beginning conversations, and ending conversations.

Canale and Swain thus propose a model of communicative competence that is made up of grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. Evidence for such a model comes from proficiency testing. Canale (1980) found small positive correlations among measures of information, grammaticality, pronunciation, appropriateness, and discourse in 37 French speaking tasks performed by 174 students of French as a second language in the 6th and 10th grades. Bachman and Palmer (1981) found that second language testing data were best accounted for by a model that distinguished grammatical, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence. This means that knowledge of discourse is important when describing learners' underlying competence. While the evidence is thin, this theory addresses a concept of language proficiency that is much broader than those that are grammatically or semantically based. It also views the learner as a member of a language community that shares sociolinguistic rules. This theoretical framework has implications for communicatively based

approaches. First, the language teaching syllabus must include functions because functions best illustrate how different grammatical forms are used to accomplish similar communicative tasks. Second, language teaching activities must reflect principles of communication and include real language. Third, the teacher's role must be as instigator of meaningful communication. Finally, textbooks must include authentic language.

The Natural Approach (Krashen and Terrell, 1983), Total Physical Response (Asher, 1982), Strategic Interaction (Di Pietro, 1982), and Communicative Language Teaching are all communicatively based approaches. They are all based on theories of communication and address the sociolinguistic aspects as well as the affective aspects of language learning.

Monitor Theory. Drawing on research from biological/neurological, developmental, linguistic, and affective studies, Krashen (see Gingras, 1978; Krashen, 1981, 1982) offers the Monitor Theory. This model is a result of a series of hypotheses formulated to explain second language acquisition in informal and formal environments. The hypotheses are the Natural Order Hypothesis, the learning/acquisition distinction, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis, and the Affective Filter Hypothesis.

Citing evidence from the order of morpheme acquisition studies, Krashen (1981) shows that among children and adults learning English as a second language there is an invariant order in which certain morphemes are acquired. Krashen takes this as evidence that there is an acquired system that is independent of the learned system where morphological rules and forms may have been presented formally in a classroom, but where students do not exhibit acquisition of these morphemes. From studies of written

production, Krashen also shows that if students are asked to focus on their grammar and given as much time as they need, the order of morphemes is different. Krashen posits the application of the Monitor, a condition in which the learner applies conscious learning to his production, to explain the difference in morpheme acquisition orders.

The difference between morpheme acquisition orders in the conditions of spontaneous speech and grammar tests, in which students focussed on form, is attributed to the learning/acquisition distinction (Krashen, 1982). Learning is the result of conscious application of knowledge that a learner has about a language. With learning, the learner is aware of the rules of the language and can talk about them. Acquisition, in contrast, refers to the subconscious process of developing ability in a language. The acquirer is aware that he is using language for communication and has a feel for what is right, but may not be able to express the rules of the language. Evidence from error correction studies indicates that there is little or no effort to correct errors made by a learner who has acquired a language. Furthermore, Krashen (1982) believes that all production is initiated by the learner's acquired competence. Learned competence may be used only as a Monitor to edit the output.

In the Monitor Hypothesis, learning functions only as a Monitor or editor. The source of the Monitor is the onset of formal operations (see Cognitive Theories) which allow conscious learning to take place. Utterances are initiated by the acquired system and the learned system can only alter the output of the acquired system. This is in contrast to most cognitive theories of language acquisition which view learning along a continuum of subconscious to conscious. To use the Monitor, the learner must focus on

form and must know the rule. Krashen cites the order of morpheme acquisition studies as evidence for the Monitor. As stated before, differences in acquisition order found in spontaneous production and in written grammar tests are attributed to the use of the Monitor. Krashen (1982) states that "use of the conscious Monitor thus has the effect of allowing performers to supply items that are not yet acquired" (p. 17).

To explain how acquirers progress from one stage to another in second language acquisition, Krashen offers the Input Hypothesis. The hypothesis states that the acquirer must have comprehensible input that contains language structures slightly beyond those that the learner has acquired in order for the learner to progress to the next stage. This implies that communication rather than grammar is the central focus of acquisition. When communication is successful, the input is understood and the acquirer is able to internalize the structures accompanying the input. This means that speaking fluency cannot be learned directly. It must be acquired over time and through comprehensible input. The evidence for the Input Hypothesis comes from studies in first and second language acquisition. Caretaker speech to children has been shown to be simpler than speech to adults and contains structures just beyond the acquisitional level of the children. It deals with topics involving the immediate environment so that the language of caretaker speech is highly context embedded and thus comprehensible. Studies in second language acquisition show that native speakers make modifications when speaking to nonnative speakers that are similar to those made by caretakers. Native speakers make modifications to enhance comprehension of the communicative message and these modifications appear to be roughly tuned to the level of the second language learner's proficiency.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis holds that second language proficiency is influenced by affective factors. Dulay and Burt (1977) proposed the Affective Filter to explain differences in language proficiency despite the stability of other factors such as environment and intelligence. Krashen (1982) hypothesizes that the Affective Filter relates to acquisition and not to learning in that affective factors show stronger relationships to second language achievement when communicative-type tests are used. The affective filter also explains why learners may receive a good deal of comprehensible input but not be able to acquire from it.

Finally, the Monitor Theory draws from diverse areas of study to explain adult second language acquisition. This model addresses the cognitive and affective characteristics of the second language learner by positing learning and acquisition as separate processes, and a Monitor and an Affective Filter. The learning/acquisition distinction states that most of language acquisition is implicit. Traditionally, language learning found in school programs is formal or explicit and encourages the use of the Monitor when focus on form, and knowledge of the rules are required. The Affective Filter has to do with the learner's feelings about himself and language learning in general.

The most important implication from this model is that comprehensible input is the key to acquisition of a second language. If input is modified to enhance comprehension of the message, acquisition will follow.

Krashen and Terrell (1983) propose the pedagogical approach, the Natural Approach, as one that focuses on comprehensible input and real

communication. Other approaches which focus on communication of the message and providing comprehensible input are Di Pietro's (1982) Strategic Interaction, and Asher's (1980) Total Physical Response.

The Interactionist Model. Fillmore and Swain's Interactionist model does not underlie any current pedagogical approach. However, we have included it here because it draws on two of the theoretical categories included in this survey--cognitive and socio-affective categories. In this view, general cognitive processes are central in determining the rate and ultimate success of child second language learners. While cognitive abilities that are language specific are central in first language acquisition, general cognitive abilities are more important in second language acquisition. In contrast to Krashen's Monitor Model, Fillmore and Swain believe that focus on form is an important element in second language acquisition. Five other components make up this model--the linguistic component, the social component, the learner component, the target language users component, and the social context component. The linguistic component refers to the assumptions that both the learner and the native speaker have regarding the target language and the input that the learner receives. The social component includes what the learners know about the rules of interaction. The learner component includes factors of age, personality, aptitude, motivation, and cognitive style. The user component is made up of setting, social roles, and the status of the first and target languages. Finally, the social context component consists of the native speaker's language modifications for the nonnative speaker, the nature of the target language, and the relation between the mother tongue and the target language.

Fillmore and Swain believe that all six components interact with each other in complex and as yet unknown ways. They argue that evidence for the various components is found in (1) an examination of what the learner has to do to communicate and in (2) variation in second language learning. The great variation in second language learning when most factors are equal points to the use of general cognitive skills. An examination of the language learning task indicates that general cognitive skills such as association, use of social knowledge, inferencing, and categorizing are involved.

This particular theory is too new to have been empirically tested. What is of import to theorists and practitioners alike, however, is that social, affective, cognitive, and linguistic considerations are being addressed in one theory for the first time. The paucity of theories or research focusing on the child second language learner also makes this a valuable theory. Perhaps this model will stimulate much needed research in this area.

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